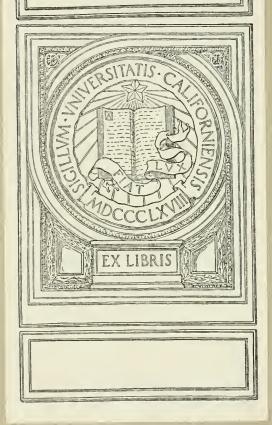
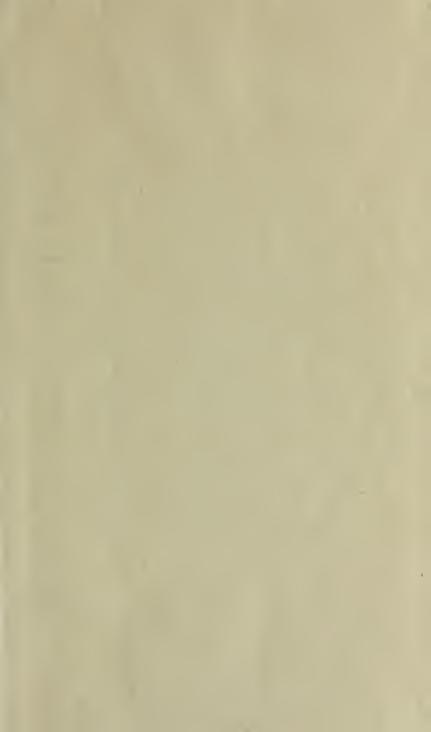
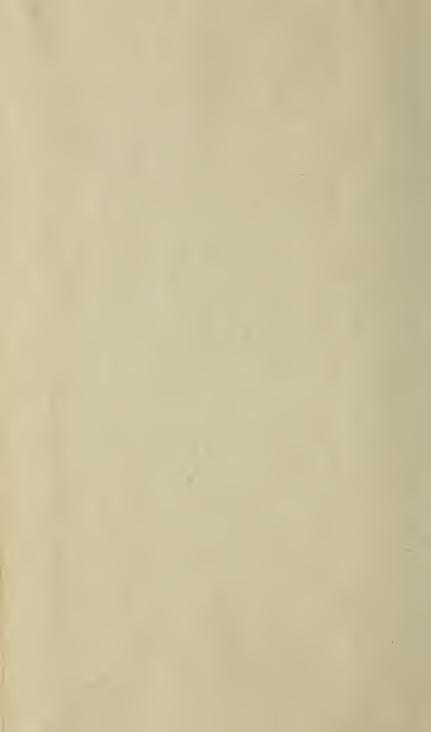


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COLOMBIA

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SOUTH AMERICAN HANDBOOKS

COLOMBIA

PHYSICAL FEATURES, NATURAL RESOURCES,
MEANS OF COMMUNICATION, MANUFACTURES
AND INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

BY

V. LÉVINE

WITH INTRODUCTION BY
B. SANIN CANO



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INTRODUCTION

The opening of the Panama Canal this year means the beginning of a new commercial era for Colombia, which is one of the nations most favoured by this inter-oceanic highway. The sea journey between Buenaventura and Cartagena, which to-day occupies three months, will be reduced to four days. The opening of the Canal and the extension of the Pacific railway to the capital of the Republic will give to the country the full advantages of her geographical position, making her importance in the Pacific more than equal to that in the Caribbean Sea.

The Pacific coast of Colombia is at present but little known. The valley of the Cauca, the basin of the Atrato, the territories watered by the San Juan and the Patia will now attract the capital, which has up to the present only been invested with much hesitation.

It is not difficult to find the reason why Colombia has been less known than other South American nations: the principal reason has been the frequent change of name. The foreign capitalist was confronted with the difficulty of the name. When he wished to study the country with the idea of investing in it his own money or that of others, there was a sense of insecurity.

The disturbances in New Granada had a bad effect on the development of the United States of Colombia; and when the Republic came to assume the name of Colombia, the name caused difficulties owing to its somewhat common occurrence. The coast is hot, and it has been assumed, therefore, in days past, that the same temperature prevails over the rest of the country. In this book the reader will learn that the regions most densely populated and offering the greatest opportunities enjoy a climate as benign to the white race as the southern countries of Europe.

As a result of the increased facilities of communication, the publication of trade returns, and the interest taken by President Reyes in making the country known, attention will now be strongly attracted by the natural resources of Colombia.

The administrations that have been in power since 1903 have principally devoted themselves to keeping the peace, and their efforts have had the effect of enabling the country to settle all questions by civilised methods.

Colombia has just given an example to the world. The most difficult problem in American democracies, namely, that of securing the liberty of the voter, and the policy of electoral methods, appears to be finally settled in this country. In the elections that have just taken place, the result of which has been the election of Dr. Jose V. Concha as President, the parties interested in the struggle had for their chief object the general good of the country rather than the triumph of a particular candidate. Dr. Concha will enter on the government of the country under the best auspices. He is not an inexperienced man; he has been Minister on various occasions, and has had to settle during his term of office the most serious questions. He has represented his country in the United States and in France, and has had to study during his residence in Europe the most complicated

side of Colombian finance. The nation has a right to expect years of peace and the harmonious development of all forms of culture during his administration.

It is of the greatest importance at the present time that Colombia should be better known. The economical conditions of certain industrial centres in South America, in Africa, and Australasia are not at the present moment the most satisfactory for foreign capital. Moreover, the prosperity of some of those countries has resulted in their being able to raise the capital required for their own development. Australia Argentina, and South Africa will soon be in a condition to provide for themselves. Argentina, on emerging from the present crisis, may, perhaps, be casting her eyes on other South American countries, in order to instil in them the result of her own brilliant economical development.

Colombia has so far consistently refused to advertise her natural resources, and the logical development of events has now placed this work in disinterested hands.

This volume affords the means not only of learning the past history of the country, but also of interpreting something of its future. For the capitalist, the explorer, the tourist, the commercial traveller, there is information of a practical kind which cannot fail to be useful. The Author has made use of the latest official publications and has taken advantage of valuable data contained in many works which are not easily procurable.

CANAL ZONE TREATY. While this book was passing through the Press news is to hand from Bogotá that a treaty of amity has been signed between the sister Republics of Colombia and the United States of America.

By this treaty the United States agrees, within six months of the signing thereof, to pay to Colombia a sum of £5,000,000 as compensation for the acquisition of the Panama Canal Zone; also to grant certain privileges for Colombian trade passing through the Canal, and free use for Colombian Government vessels. This not only closes the controversy on the subject, but also places the Colombian nation in a very favourable position. It will be seen on referring to the chapter on "National Finance" that another result contingent on this payment will be the allotment to the Foreign Bondholders of the Republic of the balance of the old arrears of interest, as arranged by the late Lord Avebury.

B. SANIN CANO.

COLOMBIA

CHAPTER I

GEOGRAPHY AND PHYSICAL FEATURES

The Republic of Colombia, formerly known as New Granada, occupies the north-west of the continent of South America. It lies between Lat. 12° 24′ N., and 4° 17′ S., and between Long. 66° 7′ and 79° W. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea; on the east by Venezuela and Brazil; on the South by Peru and Ecuador; and on the west by the Pacific Ocean and Panama. The boundaries with Peru, Ecuador, and Panama are still in dispute, and the area is therefore uncertain. According to the census of 1912 the total area is 461,606 square miles and the population 5,476,604 (about 30,000 uncivilised Indians being excluded from this total).

The area included in Colombia falls into two approximately equal parts of totally dissimilar character. The more populous and better known portion, that of the north and west, is divided longitudinally by a series of mountain ranges, enclosing great river valleys. The south-east which lies beyond the mountains, consists of great well-watered plains or sabanas, 300 to 500 ft. above sea. The northern portion of this division belongs geologically to the *llano* open pasture lands—draining north-east to the Orinoco, while the southern part is

covered with dense tropical forest, and drains south-east to the Amazon basin.

The Mountain Ranges run, roughly speaking, north and south, in a line parallel with the Pacific coast; and the flow of the more important rivers is from south to north, emptying into the Caribbean Sea. Close to the coast, along the whole length of the *intendencia* of Choco, runs a river range, known as the Baudo range, belonging to the Antilles system of Panama. To the east of this range flow the rivers Atrato, which runs north to the gulf of Uraba, and San Juan (149 miles), which runs south, and enters the Pacific by several mouths at the south of the department.

The Andes of Ecuador enter Colombia at Los Pastos in Nariño. The Western branch continues north as the Western Cordillera of Colombia, or Cordillera de Choco. It is cut by the tremendous precipitous gorge of the river Patia (1,676 ft. deep), and then runs north to the department of Bolivar. As it dies down into the plain, one branch, the San Jeronimo range, divides the river Sinis from the San Jorge, and another, the Ayapel, divides the San Jorge from the Cauca. Along nearly the whole eastern side of the range runs the great river Cauca (496 miles), with numerous small tributaries, entering the Magdalena in Bolivar. The summits of the Cordillera rise to heights ranging from 9,000 to 18,000 ft., and include Cayambe (13,710 ft.), Chiles (16,912 ft.), and Cumbal (17,076 ft.).

At the paramo 1 of Las Papas the eastern Andes

¹ Paramos—high, wind-swept plateaux, covered with scanty, low vegetation.

subdivide into the Central and the Eastern Cordilleras. The Central Cordillera, of volcanic origin, forms the watershed between the Cauca and the still greater Magdalena, and terminates near Morales on the latter river. This is the highest range, and includes Tolima (18,400 ft.), Huila (17,700 ft.), Santa Isabel (16,700 ft.), Coconucos (15,000 ft.), Purace (16,821 ft.), Las Papas (13,800 ft.), Ruiz (18,300 ft.), El Quindio (17,000 ft.), and El Buey (13,860 ft.).

The Eastern Cordillera, or Cordillera de Bogotá, is of cretaceous and tertiary formation. It runs north-east from Las Papas to the northern part of the department of Boyacá. Here there is another subdivision. branch runs north to the peninsula of Goajira, and as the Sierra de Perijá forms the boundary between the department of Magdalena and Venezuela; as it approaches the coast it is joined on the west by the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, which runs parallel with the coast. The other branch passes north-east into Venezuela, where it is known as the Cordillera de Mérida. The two ranges enclose the great basin of Maracaibo. The highest parts are in the Chita range and at Sumapáz, while the paramo of Santurban is 13,000 ft. above sea-level. The highest peaks of the Santa Marta range, not yet ascended, reach probably over 18,000 ft.

The mountains, as they die down in the north in the departments of Magdalena and Bolivar, are succeeded by an extensive plain, watered by the lower Magdalena and its tributaries, and by smaller rivers flowing into the Caribbean Sea. This plain, described as the Atlantic plain, was called by the early Spanish conquerors, New Andalusia.

A great part of the Choco, watered by the Atrato and the San Juan, is flat also. The lowest zone is subject to periodical inundation, and the higher ground is covered with forest.

The "llano" country extends almost without undulation from the foot of the Cordillera in Boyacá as far as the Orinoco. It is watered by the Arauca, the Capanaparo, the Meta, the Vichada, the Guaviare, and the Inirida, together with their numerous tributaries. In San Martin, to the south-west, and in the south, the ground is slightly higher, and the rivers drain to the Rio Negro and the Amazon. The chief of these, from the west to the east, are the Napo (the boundary with Ecuador), the Putumayo or Iza, the Caqueta or Yapura, the Apaporis, and the Vaupes. This country is covered with forest and inhabited only by uncivilised Indians. It is practically unknown and unexplored, but doubtless possesses the usual forest products of the Amazon basin. The southern portion lies on the equator.

CHAPTER II

CLIMATE AND HEALTH

WHILE geographically Colombia is a tropical country, it presents great diversity of climate. On the coast and the low lying river basins the climate is what might be expected in those regions, but owing to the immense range in the elevation above sea-level and the curious configuration of the mountain chains, the climate becomes a matter of locality. Broadly speaking five zones may be distinguished: (1) The tierra ardiente, limited to a few districts, such as the lower parts of the Magdalena, where often the stones are so hot that they cannot be touched. (2) The hot region (tierras caliente) up to about 3,000 ft. This includes the plains of the north, west and south-east and such great river valleys as of the Magdalena, Meta and Putumayo. (3) The temperate region (tierra templada), from 3,000 to 6,500 ft. (4) The cold region (tierra fria), from 6,500 to 10,000 ft. These last two regions range from the higher valleys to the foot-hills of the upper plateaux; they have a fine, healthy climate, and contain the bulk of the population, more especially near Bogotá, in the eastern Cordillera. (5) The higher plateaux and mountain slopes. These elevated uplands are extremely stormy and inclement, being exposed not only to heavy mists but to biting, violent winds. The passes crossing from west to east, by which alone direct communication can be made, are frequently so swampy as to be almost impracticable.

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The coast towns, such as Santa Marta, Cartagena, Barranquilla, belong to the hot region; Medellin, Cartago,

Guaduas, Ibagué, and Popayan to the temperate;

Bogotá, Pasto, and Tunja to the cold region.

SEASONS.—In different parts of the country the seasons vary. In certain districts of the centre and the South, and in the Cordilleras, between 840 and 10,000 ft. above sea-level, there are two rainy seasons, the so-called winters, from April to June and September to December, being separated by two periods of dry weather; elsewhere, and above 10,000 ft., there is a wet season of rather over six months (June to December), and a dry season (January to June). Hence summer below 10,000 ft. may be contemporaneous with violent rain, hail and storms in the higher plateaux.

Local conditions, however, often intervene making generalisation rather dangerous. For instance, while on the north, or Atlantic, coast the climate is intensely hot and damp, frequent breezes help to make it tolerable; on the west, or Pacific coast, there is heat with almost constant rain, only varied by occasional violent tempests. In many of the valleys the damp heat is excessive, bottled up, as it were, and is little modified by air currents. Then in the montaña or forest districts, during the rainy season the day temperature may rise as high as 100° F. and fall to 72° at night. In the Magdalena valley, from the coast up to say Girardot, the daily temperature is about 95° F.; in the Cauca valley with two wet and two dry seasons, the average is only 76° F., with a range from 64° to 84°. On the other hand, Bogotá, 4° N. of the equator, which is classed in the cold zone, has an

Bridge of the Liberator, near Bogotá



equable climate, the temperature ranging from 54° F. to 64° F., with a rainfall of 43 in. The rain generally comes in the afternoon. Here the only inconvenience felt is from the rarity of the air, which makes breathing to the unaccustomed visitor something of a conscious effort, decidedly trying to those with weak hearts or lungs.

While the tropical low lying lands and valleys are unsuited to the permanent residence of white people, malarious fevers of varying degrees of malignity being endemic, on the whole Colombia is a healthy country. There is a certain amount of yellow fever, and possibly also pellagra, but these diseases, together with malaria, will doubtless be rendered almost innocuous when sanitary measures have been more generally adopted. Colombians have not been unobservant of what has been accomplished in Panama, especially within the Canal Zone, and hopes are entertained that in time effective warfare by means of hygienic precautions may be waged against the winged carriers of various diseases. When the municipalities have carried out their programmes of civic sanitation water-supply, sewerage and so on-which are now in hand, the danger of epidemics will have been largely removed.

It has been observed that there is a marked difference in those districts watered by rivers having aguas negras and those with aguas claras. The former, while limpid enough, appear intensely black in mass, even when the river is in flood; wherever these black waters are found, mosquitos are absent, the district is free from malaria and generally healthy. So far these phenomena have not been scientifically investigated, but there may be

the possibility of a great discovery for some syntheticallyminded researcher.

Finally, it may be said that outside of the characteristically hot and damp tropical districts, visitors and settlers will experience little inconvenience if observing ordinary precautions as regards clothing and diet. The necessity for such precautions may be seen by observing the Indians, who in the lower forest regions go, like the negroes, almost naked, but in the cold mountain districts are clothed in heavy woollen garments.

CHAPTER III

NATURAL HISTORY

For several reasons the flora and fauna of Colombia are of remarkable variety and interest. The whole country is tropical, the south lying on the equator itself. As in Peru there is a series of climatic zones, ranging from sea-level to far above the line of perpetual snow. The boundaries of the country connect its natural history not only with the abundant products of its South American neighbours, but also in the north-west with those of Central America and the West Indies.

FLORA.—From the point of view of vegetation, Colombia may be divided into three zones—hot, temperate, and cold.

The hot zone includes the coasts, eastern plains and river-valleys, up to a height of about 3,500 ft. The wooded country produces abundant timber trees, dyewoods, and medicinal plants, which are particularised in the chapter on Forest Products. Large bamboo thickets are found (guaduas); but the most characteristic feature is the palm trees. It is stated that twenty-five species are found in a district of ten square leagues in the territory of San Martin. In addition to their beauty many of these trees have valuable economic products; the coco-nut palm, the Tagua or Vegetable Ivory, the Royal Palm, and the Wax-palm may be instanced.

The cultivated crops include the cacao, sugar-cane,

tobacco, maize, indigo, cotton, and vanilla; and the fruits the banana, orange, lemon, pineapple, mango, papaya, alligator-pear, water-melon, strawberry, and sapodilla. The botanical collector finds numerous plants, such as orchids, of very considerable value for export to European and other horticulturists; Cattleya and odontoglossum crispum may be mentioned.

The temperate zone includes the land from about 3,500 to 8,500 ft. above sea-level. Much of the flora above mentioned is also found in this zone, but a gradual difference is perceptible. The palms are replaced generally by tree-ferns, though the Wax-palm is found throughout the temperate zone. Dates and Wamannias appear, and also the Cinchona, from which Peruvian or Jesuits' bark is obtained. Orchids and other epiphytes, moss, and lichen grow on the tree trunks. Coffee is added to the list of crops. The Maguey or American Agave is one of the most useful plants of this zone, the Indians using stem, leaves, fruit and fibre for different purposes; it furnishes food, drink, tow, and fibre for making sacks and ropes.

The cultivation of maize continues and that of wheat begins.

In the *cold zone* maize is still found, though smaller than in the temperate. Potatoes and all the vegetable and cereal crops of Europe grow abundantly, and the gardens produce all the usual flowers and fruits. The wax-palm is still found in the forests, together with walnuts and pines, but trees cease to grow at about 10,000 ft. The paramos however produce the flowering and resinous shrubs called "frailejons" (including

Espeletia and Culcitium) and grasses similar to the "ichu" grass of Peru. About 13,000 ft. all vegetation, but lichens and alpine plants ceases, and bare rock leads up to perpetual snow.

FAUNA.—The Fauna may be classified as (a) imported, (b) indigenous. Many domesticated animals have been introduced from Europe, e.g., the horse, mule, donkey, ox, etc. These have become acclimatised and adapted to their new environment. The indigenous animals represent practically all the genera characteristic of South America. The carnivora include the puma (cougar) and jaguar: two kinds of bears, a black variety in the lowlands, and one with white face in the eastern Cordillera; and the skunk, valuable for its fur, an animal which is now being fast exterminated. The Pachydermata are represented by the tapir and two other species. The tapir, inhabiting the paramos, is of shy, nocturnal habit; its hide is valued for making saddles and harness, and its flesh is palatable. The Edentata include two varieties of armadillo, and two ant-eaters (the ant-bear and the scaly ant-eater). The sloth is found in the forests; the skin is used for covering saddles. The opossum, the cave rat, and the yapok or water rat, with valuable fur, belong to the Marsupials. The Capybary is the largest of the rodents, 4 ft. long by 2 ft. high; it has no tail, and is largely aquatic in habit; the flesh is palatable. Ruminants are represented by the common deer, the Peruvian white deer, and other species; rodents by the Capybary, and many species of hare, rabbit, and rat; Quadrumana by both large and small monkeys, of which seventeen species

have been distinguished; Cheiroptera by many varieties of bats and vampires.

Birds are found in great variety, from the Condor, the white and royal eagles, and other birds of prey to smaller varieties distinguished for their brilliant plumage or remarkable powers of song. Few of these, however, are peculiar to Colombia, and the species are so numerous that it would be impossible to catalogue them. One may mention the parrots, the toucan, the rosy heron of the lower Magdalena, the *cerraja* (a brilliant Trochilus or humming-bird, believed to be peculiar to the country), the *sauci*, with a song like that of the canary, and the *campanero*, whose bell-like note can be heard for a distance of balf-a-mile.

Among the reptiles are the great Caymans, many species of tortoise, lizards, and snakes (the boa-constrictor, found especially in the south-east; venomous snakes, such as the *talla*, particularly characteristic of the Chocó, but not found above 6,000 ft. above sea-level). Frogs and toads grow to a great size.

The sea and rivers are stocked with abundant supplies of fish food. Among characteristic products are the manatee or sea-cow, which grows to a length of 6 to 8 ft.; turtles on the Atlantic coast; and pearls, found in Buenaventura Bay.

Finally, the tropical insect life is overwhelming—locusts, beetles, ants, butterflies and moths, mosquitoes, grasshoppers, lice, fleas, etc.; in many districts they amount to a veritable plague.

CHAPTER IV

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT

In order to be able to appreciate the future possibilities of Colombia, it is necessary to know something of its history. When we look upon its territorial magnitude, its felicitous position as regards geographical situation and climatic conditions, and its vast potential wealth, the material advance so far made is disappointing; confidence will be restored, however, if we but reflect upon its troubled past, with all its wrongs and oppressions. The early and middle history will explain, if not indeed excuse, the constant upheavals and turmoils which were so soon to follow the glorious hopes awakened by the War of Independence. Only long and painful travail could overcome the inheritance of suppression and suspicion which was the outcome of the old régime. But the time of probation having passed, the true genius of the Colombian people has had opportunity of manifesting itself, and a new era of well-directed activity has been opened up.

At the time of the Spanish Conquest (1533-1560) the majority of the numerous Indian tribes inhabiting what is now known as Colombia were uncivilized, being in a state of perpetual warfare, and supplying their wants by their skill in hunting and fishing; yet there were a group of tribes which seemed to form a link in that wonderful chain of native civilizations, which, commencing with the Aztecs of Mexico, ended with the

Incas of Peru. These tribes, the Chibchas, or Muiscas, and the Quimbayas, like the other advanced nations of Central and Southern America, inhabited high and mountainous plateaux. The Chibchas dwelt on the sabana of Bogotá, making their headquarters in the neighbourhood of Tunja; the Quimbayas inhabited an extensive territory lying between the rivers Chinchina, Cauca, Patía, and the Central Cordillera. According to Spanish chronicles, the Chibchas believed in a Supreme Being, Chiminiguagua, though they also worshipped the sun, moon, stars, lakes and streams. Tradition held that their civilization was the gift of a "white man," the reforming Bochica. That they had advanced far is testified not only by the interesting accounts of their civil and economical organisation, but also by the numerous examples discovered in their tombs of their skill in working gold and copper, as well as their mastery of the arts of the potter and weaver. Cultivation of the soil was not neglected: they grew maize, potatoes, certain fruits, and cotton. Side by side with these labours was a systematic training in the practice of warfare. Under their chief Cacique, Tisquesusha, they offered a stubborn resistance to the Spaniards before they could be suppressed and enslaved. The Quimbayas, perhaps with more politic enlightenment, though ultimately with little better result, received the conquerors with open arms and became their allies.

Actually the first discoverer of the country was Alonzo de Ojeda, who visited Cape Vela in 1499. He was followed, in 1501, by Rodrigo Bastida, who explored the coast from the Rio Hacha to the Isthmus of Panama.

Between 1510 and 1533 practically the whole of the Colombian coast had been explored; the discovery of the Pacific in September, 1513, was made by Vasco Nuñez de Balboa.

It was not until his fourth voyage, in 1502, that Colombus, following the example of his lieutenants, made determined attempts to explore the mainland. He landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and visited the mines of Veraguas, whence his descendants derived the title of Dukes of Veragua; but, disappointed in his aim to discover a passage to the East Indies, he merely established a few stations and once more set sail. Others, however, were despatched to make good the formality of taking possession. In 1510, San Sebastian de Uraba and Santa Maria la Antigua were founded respectively by Ojeda and the Bachelor Enciso. Other settlements followed rapidly, some to disappear for a time, others to struggle on into importance. Among the principal of these was the town of Panama, founded in 1519; Santa Marta in 1525; and Cartagena in 1533. This last, founded by Pedro de Heredia, who later made his daring raids into the golden regions of the Sinu and San Jorge, quickly rose to importance. (It was destined to become the chief gate for the imports and exports of the country, the storehouse of gold and treasures intended for shipment to Spain, the seat of powerful governors and of the dreaded and paralysing Inquisition, the object of buccaneers' ambitions, and the hope alternately of the Imperial and the Liberationist parties. It was also the starting-point of many expeditions in search of the ever-receding fastnesses of El Dorado. The land had been gradually mapped out in a rough form as persevering adventurers made their way across the country from various directions. Herrera ascended the Orinoco and discovered the river Meta; Pedro de Heredia opened up the gold regions of the Sinu and San Jorge; while Francisco Cesar, Vadillo, and Robledo were the forerunners of settlers in Antioquia and Cauca. But far more important than all of these was the expedition undertaken by Gonzalo Jimenez de Quesada on the orders of Don Pedro Fernandez de Lugo, governor of Santa Marta. In August, 1536, Quesada left Cartagena at the head of some 700 foot and eighty horse with the definite instructions to penetrate the interior and establish posts in the captured districts. He was two years making his way through forests, across mountain ranges and difficult streams, fighting fierce native tribes, before he reached the high sabanas round about Tunja. He made his headquarters at the conquered town of Bacata and called it Santa Fé de Bogotá. Hardly had he settled down to map out this domain, to which he had given the title of Kingdom of New Granada, when he was startled by the irruption of white invaders from two opposite directions. Federmann, lieutenant of Georg von Speyer, governor of the province of Venezuela (which had been given to certain Augsbourg bankers, the Welsers, as an hereditary fief by Charles V), had taken three years to traverse a distance of 1,500 kilometres, striking almost due South from Cape Vela, ascending the Apuré and Meta, crossing high ranges of mountains. On the other hand Belalcazar, after assisting Pizarro to conquer Peru, had seized the Kingdom

of Quito north-east through Cauca and Tolima, and thence marched to Bogotá. So jealous were these conquistadores of their glory, that a sanguinary quarrel was but narrowly averted. Finally, however, the trio reached terms, leaving a sufficient garrison to maintain the towns and administration organised by Quesada, while the three doughty explorers returned to the coast and sailed for Spain. All three gained little by their exertions, ending their days miserably; but Spain profited by the work of these and many others.

Well before the middle of the sixteenth century, Spanish dominion was firmly established. Unfortunately it was essentially an imperialistic rule, the true centre of government being kept in Spain, though perforce great latitude and enormous powers had to be delegated to the local representative of his Most Catholic Majesty. Jealousy and distrust were the ruling forces of the government. Lieutenants were sent out surrounded by regal pomp, but were often called back to answer accusations, or to allay offence given by some unwise act of ostentation or authority. All important posts were filled by men sent out from Spain; foreigners were forbidden to set foot in or trade with South America: and the civil power, aided by the Inquisition at Lima and Cartagena, kept the country in severe fetters. While towns sprang up, the natives were speedily almost exterminated as the result not so much of warfare as of forced labour in the mines and fields, and, according to some contemporary writers, of the diseases spread by contact with the Spaniards. As a result, the importation of black slave labour from Africa was authorised.

New Granada was early divided into provinces. On the Isthmus were Panama and Veragua, dependent on the city of Panama. On the continent, Santa Marta, Cartagena, Popayan and the New Kingdoms were governed from Bogotá, and the whole of the provinces were subject to the Viceroyalty of Peru. In 1564 New Granada became a Presidency, to be erected into a Vicerovalty in 1719; again, from 1724 to 1740, it became a Presidency; finally the Viceroyalty was restored in the latter year and lasted to the end of the Spanish dominion. All this was symptomatic of a policy directed by the narrowest views of home interests, which necessarily engendered repression and distrust. As a rule efforts were chiefly directed towards the extraction of as much gold, silver and precious stones and valuable woods as possible from the country, little being done to further either its material or intellectual development. The plethora of office holders from Spain, and the growing influence and wealth of ecclesiastical orders, ended in arousing much local dissatisfaction. In 1767 the Jesuits, in pursuance of a wider policy, were expelled from the land; but for a time, at all events, this appears to have made matters worse. For it is pointed out by historians that the Jesuits were the chief movers in the engineering of independence. In 1781 occurred the revolt of the Comuneros of Socorro, only overcome by treachery. This was followed by the turmoil of the French Revolution, echoes of which were spread in Colombia by Antonio Nariño and others. Although Nariño was suppressed, the result of his propaganda was seen in the expedition of Francisco de Miranda in 1801 to



Church of the True Cross, Medellin



free Venezuela. The ferment thus set up finally culminated in a proclamation of independence being declared on 20th July, 1810, at Bogotá. For nine years the colonies fought against the levies of Spain which were poured into the land. Finally, the imperial power was broken by Simon Bolivar at the battle of Boyacá, fought on 7th August, 1819. Bolivar, who had been acclaimed as Liberator, was elected President by the Congress of Angustura (now Ciudad Bolivar). He at once set about forming the confederation of the Captain Generalcy of Venezuela, the Viceroyalty of New Granada and the Presidency of Quito, into the Republic of Colombia. It was scarcely to be expected that after such a political education as the country had had the course of government should run smoothly. Unfortunately the very constitution of the Republic contained the seeds of disintegration. The country having been divided into the three departments of Cundinamarca or Colombia, Venezuela and Ecuador, Francisco de Paula Santander was elected Vice-president at Bogotá. Now, Santander, a statesman of probity and splendid organising powers, was a man of ideas, and a strong advocate of federal administration, thus coming into immediate conflict with Bolivar, who as a conquering soldier was a vehement partisan of centralisation. Bolivar's successes at the Battle of Carabobo (1821), which assured the independence of Venezuela, and before Cartagena and a few other towns which had held out for the King of Spain, smoothed over matters for a time, allowing much useful work to be done, such as the abolition of the Inquisition and the emancipation of slaves. But

provincialism was at work. In 1830 Venezuela, under the leadership of General Paez, declared itself free. Ecuador broke away, and Peru was in open revolt, although subdued for a time by General Sucre at the battle of Tarqui (1829). Thereupon the government was reconstituted as the Republic of New Granada, with Santander as President. Curiously enough his rule was essentially that of centralisation, and proved eminently successful and tranquillising for a time. Then came a period of unrest, with open revolt. In 1858 the Constitution of the 22nd of May united the then existing eight departments into the Confederación Granadina. Conflicts continued, however, and Tomas Cipriano Mosquera, who had been President in 1841, having organised a revolution against President Aspina, gained 'the upper hand; whereupon he called a conference at Rionegro, and in September, 1861, a Law was signed, seven States confederating as the United States of Colombia. Mosquera was elected for his second term as President in 1867, and should be mentioned as one of the best and most progressive of Colombian rulers. He established Steam Navigation in the Magdalena River, secularised the communities, began the erection of the national Capitol and under his auspices Colombia was given the most liberal constitution framed for civilised countries. Under this constitution Colombia made great headway towards liberty and enlightenment. But as the outcome of the Rionegro Conference, a further move demanding decentralisation was made; for in 1863 eight departments, including Panama, were erected into Sovereign States, with a Federal District. In practice it was found that this fostering of the provincial sentiment did not conduce to local or general prosperity. Conflicts were numerous, often degenerating into armed risings. As a kind of compromise Dr. Rafael Nuñez was elected President in 1879, and was followed by another moderate liberal; then on re-election he had to face an open revolution of the extreme liberals. Nuñez suppressed the opposition and as the result a new constitution, abolishing the sovereignty of the States, and calling into being the centralised Republic of Colombia, was promulgated. Nuñez, elected for a third term, was succeeded by Sanclemente, under whose rule civil war once more broke out, directed by General Rafael Uribe-Uribe (1899-1902). Naturally these continually renewed disturbances were detrimental to the country at home and abroad. Debts were piled up, national credit sank, and while industrial and social progress was retarded, differences arose abroad. The most noteworthy and deeply felt of these was the revolt of the department of Panama, aided by the United States of America, and the establishment by that power of the Canal Zone. But under General Rafael Reyes, with his national prestige as a great explorer in the district of Putumayo and as commander of the Government forces in the revolution of 1885, the country made giant strides, and foreign confidence was to a large extent restored. Steps were taken to develop the country by the construction of railways and roads; and a policy of education adopted. He was too much identified with old conflicts to meet with universal acceptance among his own people, but he undoubtedly prepared the way for the enlightened and successful rule of his latest successor, Sr. Carlo S. E. Restrepo.

Everything happily points to the fact that Colombia has now settled down to an orderly development of its material, intellectual and political activities under a fairly liberal constitution, which recognises the liberty of the individual, subject to the interests of the whole community. While the division of the country into departments and provinces allows the necessary latitude for local efforts, the centralised form of the government, once firmly established, prevents sectional conflicts, and gives the country strength to meet its own problems and authority to face the world as a really united power, anxious and ready to take its due place in the march of civilisation.

Since the new constitution the following have been chiefs of the executive—

1886 - 7.Campo Serrano (Designado) 1887-8. Payan (vice-president) Rafael Nuñez 1887-8. 1888-92. Carlos Holguin 1892-96. Caro (vice-president) Quintero (Designado) 1896-1896-98. Caro Marroquin (vice-president) 1898-Sanclemente 1898-1900. Marroquin 1900-4.Rafael Reves 1904-8. 1908-9. de Angulo (Designado) Rafael Reves 1909 -Jorge Holguin (Designado) 1909 -1909-Rafael Reyes 1909-Holguin (Designado) 1909-10. Valencia Carlos E. Restrepo 1910.

CHAPTER V

DEPARTMENTS AND DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

COLOMBIA of to-day, with its 461,000 square miles and its population of 5,472,604, is divided into fifteen Departments, two Intendencias and seven Comisarias Especiales, these latter two classes of division being practically colonial districts. It is to be noted that this enumeration includes Panama, which although *de facto* a Sovereign Republic, is still claimed by the Colombian government as forming part of its national territory.

As already shown in the brief historical review, the administrative divisions of the country have undergone frequent changes, notably so since the Declaration of Independence. This was inevitable, for quite apart from political changes, the gradual exploration and development of the country necessitated amalgamation in some directions, division and sub-division in others. Thus, while a law of 1908 created thirty-five departments, another of 1909 re-established the divisions of 1905, when there were ten departments, supplemented by four Intendencias. The following year four more departments were brought into being. No doubt with further settlement the Intendencias and Comisarias will be further divided and raised to the rank of Departments.

In spite of all this re-manipulation, however, the divisions are still very unequal as regards area, population and relative importance. We will deal with them here in alphabetical order.

As regards the growth of population, it was estimated to be 2,000,000 in 1800, but ten years later the figure was given as 1,400,000, and at the declaration of Independence as 1,223,598. Part of the discrepancy, no doubt, was due to the enumeration of slaves and wild Indians under the old regime, and the more restricted counting of heads at a later period. In 1905, however, a fairly accurate census was taken, the figures recorded being 4,533,777. To-day Colombia is the third most populous country in South America, only being exceeded by Brazil and Argentina.

Population is densest in Cundinamarca, Atlantico and Caldas, and least so in Magdalena. The disparity of sexes varies considerably; while there are 170,495 men to 170,703 women in Caldas, there are only 357,302 men to 383,635 women in Antioquia. It should be explained that this last named department, like Tolima, has an enterprising population, strongly given to emigration to the less developed districts of the Republic, where all kinds of opportunities offer themselves to hardworking, resourceful men. It is found, too, that here as in other parts of the world, the large towns have an undue proportion of female inhabitants; for instance, in Bogotá there are 50,557 men to 70,700 women, yet the excess of females over males for the whole of the Department of Cundinamarca is only 37,024.

Antioquia.—This department is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean and Bolivar, on the east by Santander, on the south by Boyacá, Tolima and Caldas, and on the west by the Choco, and has an area given as approximately 34,401 square miles, with a population

of 741,000. About 5,221,167 acres are State waste and forest lands and 943,283 acres belong to the department. Its physical character is extremely varied. On the north the coastal belt, and on the east the slope down to the valley of the Magdalena is hot and humid, possessing fairly good soil. Towards the interior, the country is largely mountainous, split up by numerous valleys and rivers, the soil here is rather cold and even somewhat arid. But ever since the discovery of the country in 1541 by Jeronimo Luis Tojelo, who ascended a charming valley, called by the natives Yamesies, which the Spaniards named San Bartolemé (now known as the Medellin), the country has been peopled by a hardworking, steady and prolific population, who have made the department one of the richest in the Republic. Several of its rivers are practicable for steamers; the Magdalena forms the Eastern boundary, the Cauca traverses the department from the south to the north, and its affluent, the Nechi, passing by Zaragoza, taps the country to the east; on the west is the Atrato, which runs into the Gulf of Darien. Other rivers navigable by canoes and rafts are the Nare, San Bartolemé, Arquiá, Sucio and Murri. There are four main roads, the Santa Domingo, or North Road, 34 miles long; the Caldas, which runs into Medellin, 15½ miles; the Envigado, 9 miles; and La Quiebra, 12 miles. Considerable attention is being paid by the Government to the construction of roads and bridges, the works being carried on by local road boards under the direction of the Minister of Public Works. Although some of these roads are available for wheeled traffic, it is felt that some better organisation is required for keeping the highways in repair after construction. Medellin, capital of the department, is connected with the Magdalena by railway to Puerto Berrio, some 500 miles from Barranquilla, and with Cauca river by the Amaga railway of which about 20 miles are open to traffic.

Agriculture and mining are the chief industries. Land is generally cultivated in small holdings, which accounts for the excellent results achieved with coffee, the principal crop. In 1911 the production was estimated as follows: coffee 13,592,960 lb., cocoa 717,650 lb., rice 459,800 lb., sugar-cane 23,371,460 lb., bananas 6,167,100 lb., plantains 66,586,400 lb., ground nuts 3,905,700 lb., beans 6,656,800 lb., maize 19,425,000 lb., yucca 47,494,800 lb., cotton 274,400 lb., tobacco 932,800 lb. Cattle fattening is carried on to a small extent, but is capable of very large extension. There is a small export trade in timber (cedar, mahogany, hard woods) and forest rubber. So far the regular cultivation of rubber has not been taken up. Antioquia has long been celebrated for its mineral In 1739 there were 12,728 mines being worked, almost solely for the extraction of gold and silver. 1911 the value of the export of gold bullion was £490,967, gold dust £259,359, platinum £69,179. Both quartz and placer mining is carried on. A large number of the rivers have rich auriferous alluvia; among these are the Nechi, Porce, Riogrande, Guadalpe, Nare, Nus, San Bartolomé, San Juan, Guadualejo, Quebradonda, Barroso, Atrato, Arquiá, Murri, Sucio and the Murindo. Platinum is found in the watersheds of the San Juan and Atrato. Coal is found as far apart as Amaga and Caceres and



Avenida Colon, Medellin



Zaragoza. Iron is also mined and manufactured into rails, mills, etc. There are many indications of copper and other metals. Industrial development is remarkably progressive, being specially concentrated at Medellin. The principal towns are Medellin the capital, founded in 1675, population 71,000; Antioquia, the old capital, founded in 1541, population 10,610; Sonson, population 293,050; Yarumal, population 21,284.

The departmental income is about 1,433,000 dollars gold, and the expenditure rather more, of which 433,320 dollars gold are devoted to education. The eighty-seven municipalities have a total income of about 620,000 dollars gold. This department has no provinces, the prefecturas, or chief offices of the provinces, having been suppressed in the department, except in the district of Urabá.

Atlantico, the smallest of the departments, is a wedge-shaped coastal district, bounded on the north by the Atlantic, on the east by the Magdalena river, which cuts it off from the department of that name, and on the south and west by Bolivar. It has an area of 1,082 square miles, with a population of 114,887. It is a flat land, sloping to the sea or the Magdalena, with a tropical climate, rather trying to white people, especially in the low-lying portions when inundated after the rainy season, which lasts from May to November. Transport is good, thanks to the Magdalena running along the greater length of the department, the railway from Barranquilla to Puerto Colombia (164 miles), and the highway between Barranquilla and Usiacuri (10 miles). Cultivation of the soil is carried out on a fairly large scale, the principal

crops being sugar-cane, cocoa, and tobacco; there is also a considerable industry in fattening cattle on the plains round about Sabanalarga. Barranquilla, the capital (population 48,907), is still the chief fluvial port of the Republic with its harbour at Puerto Colombia.

The other important towns are Sabanalarga (population 16,042), Soledad (8,200), Repelon (2,900), Baranoa (5,300), and Campo de la Cruz (2,600). The two provinces are Barranquilla and Sabanalarga. Out of a departmental income of 217,560 dollars gold, 34,830 dollars are devoted to education, to which the Municipality of Barranquilla adds 14,000 dollars.

BOLIVAR, a coastal department, is bounded on the north by the Atlantic and the Department of Atlantico, on the east by the Magdalena river and department, on the south by Antioquia, and the west by Antioquia and the Atlantic. It has an area of 23,938 square miles and a population of 420,890. The land is mostly low lying, with slopes towards the coast and the valley of the Magdalena, and has a tropical climate, except in the highlands, in that part which forms a southerly wedge into Antioquia. It is well watered by the navigable waterways of the Magdalena, Sinu and Cauca and their numerous tributaries. To supplement these natural channels of traffic, a railway has been constructed between Cartagena and Calamar on the Magdalena, and roads for wheeled vehicles are either in course of construction or are projected between Barranquilla and Turbaco, between Monteria and Magangué, and others. Much attention is paid to agriculture, maize, rice, bananas, coffee, cocoa, sugar, tobacco and cotton being raised on a large scale, while cattle breeding and fattening is a big and growing industry, a considerable export trade with adjoining departments and Panama existing. The breeding of horses, donkeys and mules is another important branch of industry. From the forests timber for building purposes and cabinet making, as well as tanning materials, and dyewoods, resins and medicinal plants, together with a little rubber are derived. Ten gold mines are being worked. Industrial activity is mostly centred at Cartagena (population, 36,632), the capital. The departmental revenue is 526,580 dollars gold, and that of the fifty-four municipalities 269,989 dollars gold.

The provinces are: (1) Cartagena, population 82,700; (2) Carmen, 46,300; (3) Corozal, 39,500; Chinu, 50,200; (4) Sincelejo, 44,400; (5) Sinu, capital Lorica, 81,600; (6) Mompós, 39,700; (7) Magangué, 31,200. Besides these there are the West Indian islands of San André de Providencia and Providencia, which may become of great importance on the opening of the Panama Canal, with a united population of 5,300, mostly English-speaking

negroes and mulattos.

BOYACÁ, a department of irregular shape, about 350 miles long by 150 broad, is bounded on the north by Santander and the Republic of Venezuela, on the south by Meta, on the west by Cundinamarca and Antioquia, and contains 17,654 square miles, with a population of 586,499, mostly Indians and mestizos. It lies chiefly on the elevated plateaux of the Eastern Cordillera, with a narrow tongue of plains between Venezuela and Meta. Its population is principally engaged in cultivating

the tierra fria, raising wheat, barley, maize, alfalfa. potatoes, beans, garden vegetables, a very little coffee and sugar, cattle and horses. The river Suarez is navigable between Chiquinquira (capital of the province Occidente, population 14,500) and Lake Fuquene. There are no railways, but probably the best road in the Republic unites Tunja with Bogotá, 104 miles long; a branch road connects Duitama (population 9,900) with Sogamoso, a very ancient and interesting town, formerly the headquarters of the Chibchas priests, who dwelt in palaces roofed with gold. A road is now in construction which will unite the districts of Samaca (population 2,127), Sachica (960), and Chiquinquira-Mining is carried on in a small way over an extensive area. There are eleven gold mines in working order, twelve silver, ten copper, seven mixed, three quicksilver, two marble quarries, while 157 emerald mines have been "denounced," or pre-empted. Asphalte is being worked, though in insignificant quantities, and there are salt works at Chita, Muneque, Chameza, Pajarito, Recetoz, Mongua, Pauto, Chaquipay and Pizarra. The industries carried on are chiefly spinning and weaving of cotton and wool, tanning, and milling. The capital is Tunja (8,600 feet above sea-level, population 8,407), the ancient northern capital of the Chibchas. At one time it almost rivalled Bogotá and still contains many fine old buildings, including the Cathedral, Bishop's palace and the University. There are three public libraries in the city, and the department spends some 20,000 dollars gold annually on education, yet the Boyacan population is said to be both fanatical and illiterate. The

departmental income is 352,838 dollars gold, including a subvention of 222,400 dollars from the Government. The municipalities have a united income of 186,223 dollars gold.

The provinces are: (1) Centro (capital Tunja), population 68,000; (2) Marquez (capital Ramiriqui, 10,765), 59,300; (3) Occidente (capital Chiquinquira, 68,300); (4) Ricaurte (Moniquira, 10,800), 3,400; (5) Oriente (Guateque, 7,000), 42,700; (6) Valderama (Jerico, 5,200), 25,600; (7) Norte (Soata, 10,700), 46,600; (8) Gutierez (Cocuy, 7,700), 44,800; (9) Nunchia (Nunchia), 14,900; (10) Neira (Miraflores, 19,150), 55,300; (11) Sugamuxi (Sogamoso, 14,700), 68,500; (12) Tundama (Santa Rosa, 5,400), 56,900; and the territory of Vasquez, 1,800.

CALDAS, a central, mountainous district, bounded on the north by Antioquia, from which it was only recently separated, on the east by Cundinamarca, on the south by Cauca and on the west by the territory of the Choco, has an area of 7,915 square miles and a population of 345,000, almost entirely whites. The long range of the Western Cordillera, with its perpetually snow-capped peaks, shuts it off from the densely forested, damp and intensely hot Choco, and on the opposite boundary the land slopes down to the valley of the Magdalena, where in the forests and plains the temperature ranges between 24° and 30° centigrade. The river Cauca traverses the district from south to north, almost cutting it in two. Both the Magdalena and Cauca are navigable by small steamers, and their tributaries, La Vieja, the Risarada, and La Miel, are also used as highways. Apart from this, the only means for intercommunication is by means of a few mule tracks and footpaths, recognised roads being non-existent. The people who partake of the sturdy qualities of the Antioquians, devote most of their energies to agriculture and mining. Heavy and varied crops are raised. On the slopes of the Cordilleras wheat, barley, maize and potatoes are grown largely; on the lower slopes, protected by forests, coffee, yuca, plantains and ground nuts receive most attention, while in the lower hot valleys sugar-cane, tobacco, cocoa and pasturage predominates.

Cattle raising is a growing industry. A considerable commerce exists in preparing palm straw and various fibres for the manufacture of hats, sacking and cordage. Owing to the recent separation of Caldas from Antioquia statistics are deficient as to the exact position of mining, but 2,610 mines have been pre-empted, and there are extremely rich alluvium in most of the river valleys. Manizales is the capital. The departmental revenue is 466,192 dollars gold, a considerable portion is derived from the tax on alcohol.

The provinces are: (1) Manizales, population 74,753; (2) Salamina, 62,842; (3) Riosucio, 78,731; (4) Pereira, 92,551; (5) Marulanda, 36,728.

CAUCA is bounded on the north by El Valle and Tolima, on the east by the Huila and Caqueta, on the south by Nariño, and on the west by the Pacific; it has an area of 21,882 square miles and a population of 211,800, of whom only a little over 25 per cent. are whites. Much of the territory lies between the Western and Central Cordilleras,

and though the climate is cold on the highlands, in the beautiful valley of the Cauca it is temperate to hot. The whole country is fertile, even the volcanic slopes of the higher peaks are covered by rich pastures, The navigable rivers are the Cauca, the Micay, the Timbiqui from the Pacific to the town of that name, the Saija from the Pacific as far as Cupi, the Guapi, and for small boats the Guaju, the Temuy, the Caqueta, the Orteguasa, Palo, Hato, La Paila, Caguán, Desbaratado and several others. Mule and pack tracks are few and poor, but a contract has been signed for the prolongation of the Pacific Railway through the country to Popayan. Agriculture is the chief industry, wheat, maize, yuca, plantains, coffee, sugar-cane, potatoes, beans, cocoa and tobacco being raised, while cattle is bred and fattened on the pastures of Puracé, Timbio and other districts. Mining is of some importance, gold and platinum being exported. Between 1895 and 1912, 4,106 mines have been "denounced." Much gold alluvium is to be found in the valleys. The forests, in certain parts quite dense, produce a little rubber. Popayan is the capital.

The departmental revenues amount to 155,298 dollars gold, of which 41,312 dollars (together with 9,798 contributed by municipalities) is devoted to education. The twenty-1 ine municipalities have a united income of about 69,908 dollars gold.

There are five provinces: (1) Caldas (capital Bolivar, population 17,800), population 47,800; (2) Camilo Torres (capital Caloto, 8,600), 39,800; (3) Popayan, 67,800; (4) Santander (population of capital, 9,900), 24,700; (5) Silvia (capital of same name, 10,000), 31,800.

CUNDINAMARCA, a central district on the higher Andean plateau, is bounded on the north by Boyacá, on the east by Boyacá and Meta, on the south by Meta and Huila, and on the west by Tolima and Caldas; it has an area of 8,629 square miles, and a population of 714,000, of whom slightly less than half are whites. While about a third of the department is occupied by the higher plateau, including the Sabana of Bogotá, and its surrounding mountains, where the climate ranges from the cool to the frigid regions of perpetual snow, two-thirds are on the slopes and in the valley of the Magdalena and the middle watershed of the Orinoco, where the climate shades from the temperate to the tropical. Corresponding with these changes of elevation and climate are great diversities of physical features and vegetation. On one hand we have the rugged and arid mountains, on the other the dense vegetation of the tropics, interspersed by grassy plains. Apart from the Magdalena, which is navigable for steamers which ply between the ports of Girardot (population 4,471), Guataqui (693), and Beltran (941), there are few rivers of importance, most are mere mountain torrents. The river Bogotá, crossing the sabana near the capital, forms the great Tequendama fall of 450 ft. The population is fairly scattered, there being 110 municipalities, in none of which, outside of Bogotá, do the inhabitants much exceed 6,000. the population is engaged in most branches of trade and industry, agriculture absorbs the attention of the greater number. The land round about Bogotá and other large towns is well cultivated, producing fruit and vege-The crops, however, cover almost the whole tables.

San Francisco, Bogotá



range of the cultivated plants; wheat, barley, maize, beans and potatoes in the higher regions; coffee of renowned quality on the slopes; sugar, cocoa, bananas, tobacco and tropical fruits in the valleys; cattle graze on the sabana and on the llanos of the Orinoco watershed, and large herds of pigs are raised. Considerable attention is paid to mining. Iron is mined in the provinces of Facatativa and Zipaquira; gold and silver is found widely distributed, as well as copper, lead, coal, jasper, rock crystal and asphalte. Salt production is an important industry in four or more provinces. Although there are considerable forest lands, the production from these is not great. The department is served by four railways: (1) The Northern, 39 miles long, uniting Bogotá with Chia, Cajica, Zipaquira and Nemocon; (2) The Sabana Railway, 25 miles, uniting the capital with Fontibon, Mosquera, Madrid and Facatativa; (3) The Southern, 19 miles, running out to Bosa, Soacha and Sibate; (4) The Girardot, running from Facatativa through Zipacon, Anolaima, La Mesa, Anapoima, Tocaima to Girardot.

Bogotá, capital of the Republic and of the department (altitude over 5,000 ft.), has a population of 121,000.

The departmental income amounts to 949,348 dollars gold, of which 137,412 dollars are devoted to education.

The provinces are: (1) Bogotá, population 165,400; (2) Choconta (capital of same name, population 9,900), 45,700; (3) Guavio (Gacheta, 12,500), 44,200; (4) Facatativa, 77,500; (5) Girardot (10,400), 22,200; (6) Guaduas (10,600), 77,700; (7) Guatavita (6,300), 23,800; (8) Oriente (Caqueza, 10,000), 54,900; (9)

Tequendama (La Mesa, 11,200), 58,100; (10) Ubate (9,600), 52,600; (11) Zipaquira (10,000), 60,900; (12) Sumapaz (Fusagasuga 13,500), 31,200.

EL VALLE is bounded on the north by Caldas and the Choco, on the east by Tolima, on the south by Cauca, and on the west by the Pacific. It has an area of 4,179 square miles, and a population of 217,159, about 50 per cent. of whom are white. The main stretch between the Western and Central Cordilleras has a gentle slope down to the Cauca river, with an altitude of from 3,000 to 5,500 ft. above sea-level, and enjoys an equable, warm climate. It is well wooded and the vegetation luxurious, all kinds of fruits of the temperate and warm zones growing in large quantities and to wonderful size. On the rich pastures cattle thrive amazingly. Cultivation is carried far up the foot-hills, consequently the produce varies, including rice, maize, potatoes, beans, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, plantains, sugar-cane, etc. Mining is destined to become an extensive industry. At present, claims have been filed for 446 gold, 30 platinum, 165 gold and silver mines, and one each of emery, talc, copper and iron. Coal is also mined, and there are large deposits of rock crystal. The Cauca, Vieja, Dagua, Anchicaya, Raposo, Cajambre, Naya and Juramangui, which are all more or less navigable, possess auriferous alluviums. Cali is the capital.

The provinces are: Cali, population 48,582; Palmira (capital of same name, 24,312), 46,632; Buga (capital of same name, 11,578), 31,728; Tuluá (capital of same name, 10,825), 27,077; Roldanillo (capital of same name, 9,196), 28,451; Cartago (capital of same name, 18,618),

24,115; and Buenaventura (capital of same name, 6,476), 10,574.

Huila is bounded on the north by Cundinamarca, on the east by Meta and Caqueta, on the south by Cauca, on the west by Cauca and Tolima. It has an area of 8,687 square miles and a population of 158,191. Like most of the central districts it enjoys marked differences of physical features and climate. The low-lying parts fringing the Magdalena and east of that river, are hot and humid, and malaria is prevalent. On the foot-hills the climate is pleasant, and higher up cold. Over half of the area is Government forest and mountain land. Cattle raising is well developed. Wheat, maize, rice, coffee, sugar and tobacco crops are raised on a big scale. Four quartz mines are worked in the Organos reigon, while the auriferous deposits of the Magdalena, Yaguara, Baché and Aipe also receive attention. A small beginning has been made in spinning and weaving both cotton and wool, but the manufacture of the so-called Panama straw hats is a considerable industry. Neiva, the capital, is at 1,479 feet above sea-level, has an even temperature of 27°C. and a population of 21,852. It has a large public market and is an important centre of commerce.

The departmental revenues amount to 152,400 dollars gold, and those of the twenty-nine municipalities to 140,034 dollars.

The provinces are: Neiva, population 72,039; Garzon (capital of same name, 10,787), 59,523; and La Plata (capital of same name, 5,130), 26,627.

MAGDALENA, is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by the Gulf and the Republic of

Venezuela, on the south by Norte de Santander, and on the west by Bolivar and the Atlantic. It has an area of 20,463 square miles and a population of 149,547, including the Comisaria of Goajira, 212,560. mostly a low-lying alluvial country, watered by the Magdalena, the Cesar and many other minor rivers, but on the eastern border there are the foot-hills and the heights of the Eastern Cordillera, and, shutting off the Goajira Peninsula from the rest of the department, the great mass of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, the snow-clad top to which the range owes its name, with a base of some 5,000 square miles, and rising at one peak to 19,000 ft. Apart from these higher districts, the climate is hot and damp, in some parts of the Magdalena valley reaching the tierra ardiente degree. Coffee, cocoa, sugar and bananas are the principal crops raised, but most other vegetables and fruits can be grown within the borders. There is some mining in the mountains and along the rivers. The capital is Santa Marta (population 5,348), the oldest city in Colombia, at one time a busy port, now again rising into importance.

The provinces are Santa Marta, 70,903; Padilla (capital Riohacha, 4,426), 20,250; Valledupar (7,301), 24,077; Banco, 20,141; Sur (capital Rio de Oro, 5,894), 13,776.

NARIÑO is bounded on the north by Cauca, on the east by Caqueta, on the south by the Putumayo and Ecuador, and on the west by the Pacific ocean. It has an area of 10,039 square miles, and a population of 292,535. It may be divided into three distinct zones: (1) lying between the Western and Eastern Cordilleras, more or

less mountainous, occupying almost a third of the area, and thickly populated, two-thirds of the people being Indians or mestizos. This part is well watered by the navigable Patia, the Mayo, Juanambu, Pasto and Guaitara, and produces potatoes, barley, rice, cocoa, sugar and rubber. (2) The Western slope down to the Pacific, rather more than a third of the department, which is dense forest, except for a small zone fringing the road from the high plateaux to the coast. This part is also well watered by the navigable rivers Patia, Guapi, Iscuande, Telembi, Tapaje, Mira, Mataje, and numerous other streams open to boats and canoes. (3) The Eastern portion is composed of foot-hills and valleys, with dense forests, wherein roam many wild Indian tribes. There are few whites. Road-making has been carried on with great energy in the department, and fair highways or paths exist between Pasto and La Cruz, 56 miles; Pasto and the Cauca, 49½ miles; Pasto to Tuquerres, 49½ miles; Pasto to Ipiales, 54½ miles; Tuquerres to Barbacoas, 99 miles; and Pasto to Mocoa, 721 miles. Agriculture is the chief industry, but there are great possibilities as regards mining; 2,452 quartz and alluvial mines have been "denounced," but only six are being systematically worked, five of them being Colombian companies. Pasto, the capital, lies 8,655 ft. above sea-level. The departmental revenues amount to 738.325 dollars gold, and those of forty-eight municipalities 390.504 dollars.

The provinces are: Pasto, 74,425; Tuquerres (capital of same name, 15,652), 58,742; Obando (capital Ipiales, 14,615), 64,387; Juanambu (capital La Union, 9,139),

26,633; La Cruz (capital of same name, 9,451), 28,192; Barbacoas (capital of same name, 7,840), 17,833; and Nuñez (capital Tumaco, 11,702), 22,341.

NORTE DE SANTANDER is bounded on the north and east by Venezuela, on the south by Boyacá, on the west by Santander and Magdalena. It has an area of 6,708 square miles, and a population of 204,381. It is traversed by spurs of the Central and Eastern Cordilleras, the temperature falling to 46° F. on the barren paramos of Bagueche, Tamar, Tierranegra and Cachiri, and rising to 89° F. in the valleys of Zulia, Catatumbo and Sarare. As might be expected the crops, which are the leading sources of wealth of the department, vary greatly, ranging from potatoes and wheat to coffee and cocoa. silver, copper, iron, lead and coal are mined, and petroleum wells also exist. The Zulia is navigable by steam launches, and the Catatumbo and Tarra by boats. A great northern road is in course of construction, and is now open from the capital to Puente San Rafael. San José de Cucuta (population 20,364), the capital, lies 984 ft. above sea-level, enjoys a mean temperature of 84° F., has wide, tree-shaded streets, and good markets. It is united to Puerto Villamizar on the Zulia by a railway. The departmental revenues are about 218,340 dollars gold.

The provinces are: Ocaña (capital of same name, 16,814), 63,816; Pamplona (capital of same name, 14,834), 43,362; Cucuta (20,346), 97,203.

Santander is bounded on the north by Magdalena and Norte de Santander, on the east by Boyacá, on the south by Boyacá, and on the west by Antioquia and

Bolivar. It has an area of 19,161 square miles and a population of 400,084. Its physical features, climate and agricultural conditions are much the same as those of the Norte de Santander, though it has more extensive low-lying plains watered by the Sogamoso and the Suarez. The Sogamoso, Lebrija and Carare are navigable by small boats. A good but short road is open between Bucaramanga and Florida. Gold, silver, copper, talc and asphalte are found in the district, the Rio de Oro having rich auriferous deposits. Wheat, rice, coffee, sugar, cocoa and tobacco are the principal crops. Bucaramanga (population 19,735), the capital, lies in a valley, 3,153 ft. above sea-level, with a variation of temperature between 64° F. and 88° F.

This department has a revenue estimated at 312,940 dollars gold, which is insufficient to meet its expenditure. The municipalities have revenues amounting to about 50,000 dollars.

The provinces are: Bucaramanga, 72,029; Charala (capital of same name, 9,861), 24,943; Malaga (capital of same name, 7,630), 42,500; Piedecuesta (8,076), 14,212; San Andres (12,721), 27,725; San Gil (9,965), 44,419; Socorro (11,427), 40,798; Vélez (8,637), 76,453; Zapotoca (10,598), 57,073.

Tolima is bounded on the north by Antioquia, on the east by Cundinamarca and Huila, and on the west by Cauca and Valle. It has an area of 10,811 square miles and a population of 282,426. This peculiarly long-shaped district has the Central Cordillera for its western boundary, the land then sloping eastward to the Magdalena. On these lowlands the climate is rather warm, but the

plains lend themselves admirably to cattle farming, a large head of cattle being raised, often many thousand on one farm. On the foot-hills good cocoa, coffee and tobacco is grown. The upper part of the Cordillera is given over to agriculture, coffee and other crops being grown. Mining is exceptionally well developed, some sixty properties being worked for gold or silver. Most of the rivers are auriferous. The department enjoys the advantage of being tapped by the Dorada Railway; the Magdalena; the Saldaña, open to steam launches; the Ata and Cucuana rivers, open to small boats; and the Quindio mule path. Tobacco, textile and hat factories carry on a flourishing trade. Ibagué, the capital, 4,262 ft. high, with a population of 24,566, is the chief centre of activity. The department have an income of 395,843 dollars gold, and the municipalities (of which there are thirty-six), of 125,004 dollars.

The provinces are: Ibagué, 54,776; Guadas (capital Guamo, 15,345), 135,558; Honda (8,636), 23,980; Libano (16,186), 43,935; and Ambalema (6,599), 24,127.

Choco (Intendencia), is a comparatively narrow slip bounded on the north by the Gulf of Darien, on the east by Antioquia, Caldas and Valle, on the south by El Valle, and on the west by the Comisaria of Jurado and Panama. It is a densely forested slope down from the Western Cordillera, and is intensely hot and very damp, for it rains nearly all the year round. It has an area of 15,033 square miles and a population of 68,127, mostly negroes and mulattoes. Its chief products are gold, platinum, rubber, ivory nuts, dyewoods, timber, cocoa, and salted fish. There is no doubt vast wealth in the forests, and

also in the auriferous rivers. Twenty mines are being worked and 380 have been explored. Quibdo (population, 15,756), the capital, lies inland, 138 ft. above sealevel, surrounded by hills. The rapidity of its growth is shown by the fact that in 1908 its population was only 4,000. The provinces are Atrato and San Juan.

A few years ago a Comisaria was carved out of the coastal strip from the frontier of Panama to the river San Juan, and is named Jurado. This strip is coveted by the neighbouring Republic and, as it was a constant cause of dispute, it was considered advisable to place it directly under the jurisdiction of the executive at Bogotá, which is represented locally by a Comisario.

Goajira (Comisaria), is a peninsula, almost entirely surrounded by the Atlantic and the Gulf of Venezuela. It has an area of 5,019 miles. Along the Gulf of Venezuela there is a range of the foot of the Central Cordillera. Most of the rest of the district is low-lying forest land, inhabited chiefly by Indians, who gather forest products and raise a useful breed of horses. The population of the Comisaria is 53,013, its capital San Antonio. It is divided into the districts (or Seccions) of Norte, Occidente, and Sur.

Meta (Intendencia), a large track of country, 85,328 square miles in extent, bounded on the north by Boyacá and Venezuela, on the east by Venezuela, on the south by the territory of Caqueta and on the west by Huila and Cundinamarca. It slopes from the Eastern Cordillera foot-hills to the Guainia and Orinoco rivers. While the western and southern parts are wooded, the remainder are rolling llanos, covered with coarse and inferior grass.

A considerable amount of cattle is raised, but it is of poor quality. Much of the land is still unexplored. Its chief trade outlet is by the Meta, through Venezuela to the Atlantic. It is divided into three provinces: Villavicencio, population 4,774; San Martin, 3,444; and Orocué, 1,091. The number of uncivilised Indians is estimated at 10,000.

CAQUETA is a vast territory of 187,258, administered as a Comisaria, forming part of the great maze of eastern mountain, forest and rolling plains. It is traversed by the Yapura river, has a population estimated at 24,543, of which 2,034 inhabit the capital, Florencia.

The other Comisarias are Arauca, the western tongue of marshy llanos lying between Boyacá, Meta and Venezuela; Vaupes (capital Calamar, 545), population 5,545; Uraba (capital Acaudi, 1,476), 6,476; Jurado (capital Pizarro, 5,657), 8,207; and the much disputed Putumayo (capital Mocoa, 1,380), 31,380.

CHAPTER VI

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT

By the existing Constitution the government of the country is divided into the Executive, the Legislative and the Judiciary. It is the Executive which has the predominant influence, in accordance with the political tendency which substituted for the old federation of Sovereign States a centralised form of rule.

(1) The Executive consists of a President and his Council of Ministers. The President is elected by direct popular vote for a term of four years. He may be elected for a second, or even a third term, but these must not run consecutively.

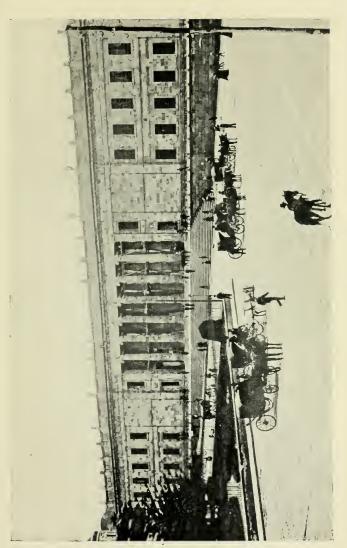
All Ministers are appointed by the President, and may be removed from one office to another or dismissed by him. They are, however, responsible to the Legislature, in whose deliberations they join. There are seven Ministers, who preside respectively over the departments of State (Gobierno), Foreign Relations, Hacienda (Revenues), Treasury (Expenditure), War, Public Works and Education. They are essentially Secretaries of State to the President and carry out his policy.

Each of the territorial departments is administered by a Governor, who is appointed and is removable by the President. The Governor is assisted by a Departmental Assembly, popularly elected at the rate of one deputy for every 12,000 inhabitants, but possessing little power of initiation or control. Governors designate Prefects to administer the various provinces into which their department are divided, who are appointed by the President. Alcaldes presiding over municipalities are nominated by the Governor or Prefect, and appointed by the Government. Alcaldes are at once Executive and Judicial officers, acting in the latter capacity practically as a Court of First Instance in both civil and criminal cases. They preside over Consejos Municipales (Municipal Councils), whose members are elected by popular vote. These local councils are fairly active bodies within their limited jurisdiction, and have considerable local influence. They are aristocratic and plutocratic rather than proletarian, representing the landed and commercial interests.

Intendencias and Comisarias are governed by Intendentes and Comisarios appointed by the President; they possess both executive and legislative functions, subject solely to the control of the National Executive.

Posts and Telegraphs are under the Executive. Education is under local control, though supervised through the Minister of Education by the Executive.

Defence.—The ultimate power of the Executive rests on the forces controlled by the Minister for War. The strength of the permanent army is fixed annually by an act of Congress, and service is compulsory. The artillery is divided into batteries and sections; the cavalry into regiments of two or three squadrons; the infantry into companies of 100 men, six companies forming a battalion, two or more battalions a brigade, two brigades a division, and two divisions a corps. The



The Capitol, Bogotá



total permanent force in 1913 amounted to 6,031. The war footing is estimated at over 50,000 officers and men. The navy consists of a fleet of five cruisers, three gunboats, one troopship and a number of auxiliary vessels. The Police force numbers 5,619.

(2) Legislative Power resides in Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senate is composed of one member for every 120,000 inhabitants, and one additional for any fraction exceeding 50,000. These Senators are elected for a period of four years by electoral colleges, whose members are chosen by the Departmental Assemblies. Members of the House of Representatives are elected for two years by direct vote, in the proportion of one member for every 50,000 inhabitants.

The Intendencias each send a member, who is elected by the Intendente, his secretary, and three electors nominated by the Municipal Council of the local capital.

Sessions are annual, lasting ninety days, but the President may call special sessions. He may even convoke a National Assembly in place of Congress, whenever a fundamental law affecting the Constitution is in question. Laws passed by both houses receive the Presidential assent. The President possesses a limited power veto. If he objects to a Bill, the Congress may overrule his decision by securing a two-thirds majority in both Houses. The President may still oppose, on the ground that the law is contrary to the Constitution. Should the Congress insist on passing the law, the final decision is left to the Supreme Court.

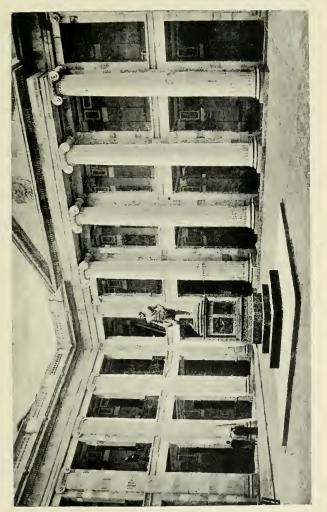
Budgets are prepared by the President and his

advisers and voted by Congress. Subsidies for educational and other purposes are made to the departments, whose Assemblies have delegated powers for raising local revenues, while the municipalities also have restricted powers of taxation. These limited powers include the imposition of import (both customs and octroi) and transit duties.

After every Presidential election Congress appoints a first and second *Designado*, who act, consecutively, as chief of the Executive in the event of the death or resignation of the President.

(3) Judicial administration is divided into a Supreme Court, a Superior Court for each department, Municipal Courts and Commercial Courts. The Supreme Court consists of nine Judges, of whom four are elected by the Senate and five by the House of Representatives from a Presidential list of nominees, and sit for five years.) The duties of the Supreme Court are to decide whether any laws or executive decrees brought before them conform to the Constitution; to act as a final appeal Court; to appoint the Judges in the Superior Courts from nominations made by the respective departmental Assemblies. Judges in the Superior Courts sit for four years, Municipal Judges are elected by two municipal Councils. Alcaldes fulfil in a measure certain of the French Juges de Paix and Juges duties of the d'Instructions.

The Civil Code is based on the Code Napoleon, as is the criminal Code. There are two Commercial Codes, one devoted to Maritime Law, largely based on Spanish practice. So far no Separate Commercial Courts have



Inner Court of Capitol, Bogotá



been constituted, although provided for in the Constitution. The codes are, of course, modified and supplemented by Legislative Acts and Executive Degrees, both of which, as stated, are subject to revision by the Supreme Court.

CHAPTER VII

FINANCE

PUBLIC DEBT, INCOME AND EXPENDITURE, BANKING

ONE of the happiest and surest auguries for Colombia's future prosperity is the steady recovery of both her National and commercial credit. This recovery, made possible by measures adopted under General Reyes, was assured by those taken under the Government of President Restrepo. When critics refer to the anomalous fact that a national currency of paper is at a discount of 10,000 per cent. that is to say, a dollar note fetches only 1 per cent. gold on the open market, it must be remembered that at one time the exchange had risen to 25,500 per cent., with violent fluctuations, and that there had been a long history of default in payment of interest on foreign All that has been altered. The exchange, officially recognised at 10,000 per cent. discount, remains round about that point on the open market; the issue of paper money has been stopped and is being slowly replaced by gold, silver and nickel coinage; interest, together with commission on arrears, is being regularly paid on the foreign debt and a sinking fund maintained.

Public Debt.—It was probably inevitable with such prolonged political unrest following upon the war of independence that financial difficulties should have supervened. Moreover, great financial disturbances were created by the drawbacks attaching to borrowing at high rates, with heavy commissions and brokerages, the

indiscriminate issue of paper money by the Central Government and the departments in the time of the last revolution (1899-1902). There was no forced currency of paper before 1885, but the terrible commercial slump which began in 1879, when the price of sulphate of quinine quickly dropped from 16s. 6d. to 3s. 6d. per ounce, killing the export trade of cinchona from Colombia, while the fall in the price of coffee and tobacco crippled the agriculture of the country and the national finances, forced the Government to issue the unredeemable paper currency. To these disasters legislative measures added fresh horrors. Originally a bi-metallic basis of currency was adopted, though private banks had the right to issue notes not classed as legal tender. When as a result of the commercial crisis both gold and silver were drained out of the country, the banks, which had scarcely exercised their privilege, threw a large amount of notes on the market. So far had this degeneracy gone that in 1886 Raphael Nuñez made the paper dollar (or peso) of the National Bank the legal monetary unit. This Banco Nacional, which had been instituted in 1880 by Nuñez, although granted extraordinary privileges had not won the confidence of the country, and consequently the Government had to subscribe for over 1,000,000 of its 2,500,000 dollar capital. A year later its bills were made legal tender, which other banks had to accept at their face value. Laws and decrees issued in quick succession, all tending to secure the monopoly of the National Bank, and in spite of the free coinage of silver at .500 fine, the mass of paper money accumulated. To stem this flood a law was passed in

1894 by which further issues were to be made only in the event of foreign war or internal rebellion. Then began the era of civil strife, the rapid growth of paper dollar circulation and the phenomenal rise of exchange. After the cessation of hostilities in 1903 the 10,000 per cent. discount appeared to be adopted by general consent, an improvement which was confirmed by the law of that vear fixing a gold standard, recognising the right of all contracting parties to stipulate payment in gold or paper, permitting the free circulation of foreign money, and establishing a Junta de Amortización. All this tended to quiet matters, for the new Council of Redemption was entrusted with the collection of certain revenues pavable in gold. This gold was put to auction on the exchange, and the paper dollars received for it cancelled. Just when the benefits of its work were beginning to be felt, the Junta was dissolved by General Reyes, who once more attempted to form a national bank. This time it was the Banco Central, floated with a capital of 8,000,000 dollars, less than half of which was subscribed for, and only about a fifth paid up. Granted great privileges, it also had the beneficial duty of collecting some of the government revenues and devoting from 25 to 50 per cent. of the proceeds to a sinking fund for redemption of the paper money. The bank was also strong enough to ensure the payment of interest on foreign bonds and to reduce the general bank interest from 7 to 2 per cent. per month. When General Reyes resigned, the Government contract with the bank was rescinded, but whatever evil effects this might have had on exchange, were largely counteracted by a law which

fixed the legal value of paper and gold as 10,000 to 100 for the payment of taxes. Then in 1909 followed the creation of the Junta de Conversión, whose duties are: to exchange old bills for new 50, 100 and 1,000 dollar notes (largely to minimise fraud), and for silver at '900 fine and nickel coins. There is also a surtax of 2 per cent. on the amount of specific duty on imports (which produced 176,181 dollars in 1911), devoted to redemption of notes. In 1910 the English sovereign was made legal lender, the Government accepting payment of taxes in gold or paper, the former at an exchange value of 9,900 per cent. premium. Following upon this the Departmental Government of Antioquia re-opened the Mint at Medellin, and is now coining gold at the rate of about £60,000 These measures, together with the cancellation of over 30,000,000 forged paper pesos, have greatly steadied exchange and the money market generally, and there is every prospect of still further improvement.

Even more unfortunate has been the history of Colombia's foreign bonded debt. This debt was contracted in war time, when not only was high interest promised, but heavy commissions and discounts had to be allowed, so that a large proportion of the nominal advance never reached the country. Of the total foreign indebtedness of La Gran Colombia, New Granada accepted responsibility for £3,776,791. Payment of interest was very faulty, so that by 1873 the capital and accrued interest ran up to £6,630,000. It was recognised that there was no hope of such an indebtedness being liquidated, and after negotiations the bondholders accepted obligations to the amount of £2,000,000. Again there was default,

and after further negotiations the total debt of £3,514,442 was cut down to £2,700,000. As the result of non-payment of interest, the late Lord Avebury, representing the bondholders, and Don Jorge Holguin, Financial Agent, discussed the whole question and came to a formal agreement, whereby the interest was reduced to 3 per cent.; of the accrued interest amounting to £351,000, 70 per cent. was to be paid off, together with commission, by annual drawings, and the further 30 per cent. is to be discharged if and when the United States pays any compensation for Colombia's Panama claim. As security the bondholders were given a pledge of 12 per cent. of the customs revenue, to be increased to 15 per cent. should the sum received fall below 5,000,000 dollars gold. All these obligations have been faithfully fulfilled.

Meanwhile the internal debt, which amounted to 24,719,541 dollars in 1910 was reduced to 1,315,781 dollars in 1912, and at the present average redemption drawings, should be extinguished in less than two years, So improved is the position that we are told by the Special Commissioner of the Advisory Committee to the Board of Trade on Commercial Intelligence who visited Colombia on behalf of the British Government in 1911, that an international group, represented by a British Syndicate, actually submitted proposals for a loan of £5,000,000 to the Colombia Government. This was to be applied to the unification of the external debts, the repayment of certain railway mortgages and the acquisition of the Sabana and Girardot Railways. On the other hand, French capitalists have offered to form a

Mortgage Bank. Clearer evidence of restored confidence could hardly be forthcoming.

This looks well for the future, for the total indebtedness per capita is extremely low, but it must be confessed that at present the Government, Departmental and Municipal revenues are very small, certainly insufficient to meet the requirements of the work to be done.

Income and Expenditure.—By far the largest proportion of the national revenue is obtained from import duties. The budget for 1913 was made up as follows—

_					_				
		Dollars,							
					gold.				
Customs .		• * •	•.•		8,250,000				
Port dues .	• •	• •			224,000				
Surtax .		• •			167,000				
Sanitary due	s .				8,500				
Export dues					100,000				
Consular fees					480,000				
Hospital tax		• •			90,000				
TD '1	• •				120,000				
Salt and Mir	ie rent	s			1,636,000				
Monopolies (c	igars a	ind ma	tches)		65,000				
Stamps and					400,000				
Intendencias	-				57,000				
Magdalena ca	nalisat	tion tax	x		120,000				
River naviga					100,000				
Mines					24,500				
Miscellaneous	5				248,000				
					12 500 000				
					12,500,000				
Expenditure									
Ministry of			0112		1,264,515				
Foreign Affa			• •	• •	329,677				
T.		• •	• •	• •	1,070,591				
***	• •	• •	• •	• •					
	• •	• •	• •	• •	2,661,279				
J	• •	• •	• •	• •	544,316				
Public Debt		 h.a	• •	• •	2,551,556				
Posts and To	elegrap	ns			1,029,681				

Exp	Dollars, gold.			
Justice			 	980,724
Pensions			 	284,206
Education			 	634,297
Public Wor	rks		 	394,972
Fomento			 	754,086
	Tot	al	 1	2,500,000

On referring to Chapter V some idea of local administrative resources will be obtained.

BANKING.—While the sources of income are restricted, looking to the country as a whole, it must be said that even greater inconvenience is felt as the result of the very limited currency fund which, counting paper at the legal exchange, hardly amounts to 10s. per head of the present population. A little relief is felt from the fact that silver and nickel circulates on the Venezuelan and the Panama frontiers and in the Choco, while there is always a certain amount of foreign money in circulation at the seaports. If exchange can be kept steady, the coinage of gold at Medellin will in time help matters. But the real hope for a prosperous and unfettered commerce is the extension of banking facilities. At present there is a great scarcity of such facilities. As explained above, the Banco Central was originally founded as a national bank of issue. But its privileges were revoked and it now has only the standing of any other bank. Its nominal capital is 2,300,000 dollars, and in June, 1912, it had a reserve of 309,906 dollars, and deposits amounting to over 340,000 dollars; it pays a dividend of over 10 per cent. Of the other three banks in Bogotá the Banco de

Colombia has 12,000 shares, which are quoted on the local market at 65 dollars (English gold), has over 2,710,000 dollars on deposit, and pays 3 dollars interest per share. The shares of the Banco de Bogotá are quoted at a little over 2 dollars gold; it had in June, 1912, over 958,000 dollars on deposit. The Banco Hipotecario has a capital of 500,000 dollars, all shares issued and 60 per cent. paid thereon; has a reserve of 90,300 dollars, and 214,221 dollars on deposit. Interest on deposits varies from 3 to 6 per cent. according to term of call, and all the banks-apart from the Banco de Colombia-allow 3 per cent. per annum on the minimum monthly balance on current account. At Barranquilla there are two banks: the Banco Commercial, which has a paid-up capital of about 180,000 dollars; and the Atlantico. According to the Census report, they paid from 14 to 16 per cent. per annum. At Medellin there are two banks, the Banco de Sucre and the Banco Republicano, each with capitals of 600,000 dollars, the shares of the former being quoted at a premium of 20 and of the second at 60 per cent. In this Department of Antioquia there are two other banks, at Rionegro and at Sonson. At Cartagena there are three banks: Banco de Bolivar (paid-up capital 500,000 dollars, deposits under 150,000), Banco de Cartagena (capital 100,000 dollars), Banco Union (capital 400,000 dollars). At Tunja there is the Banco de Boyacá. At Manizeles, the rapidly growing capital of Caldas, the Banco de Manizeles, with a united paid-up capital and reserve of over 110,000 dollars, has less than 100,000 dollars on deposit. At Popayan the Banco de Popayan has a paid-up

capital of 20,000 dollars and deposits to over twice that sum. At Cali the Banco Comercial has a paid-up capital of about 100,000 dollars. At Pasto the Banco del Sur, with a paid-up capital of about 66,000 dollars, and deposits of about half as much, has managed to pay 20 per cent. All these banks are doing well, few pay less than 10 per cent., the average is probably over 12 per cent., in spite of the custom of paying high interest on deposits and even on current account. It must be remembered that most of the big mercantile houses both at the seaports and in the interior, do a certain amount of banking business, and some of them devote a good deal of attention to selling exchanges, discounting bills, making advances on bills of lading and at the same time accepting deposits. Even taking this into account, however, it would seem that Colombia offers a good field for banking enterprise, especially if managed on sound but not too conservative lines.

Law 57 of 1887 declares that in order to found a new bank it is necessary to obtain the sanction of the Government (Art. 54). Such banks may fix their rate of discount, interest and commission, making these known by the issue of printed notices. Variations may be made by further printed notices after expiry of ninety days from every such notice issued. Private banks may lend money on land. By authority of 17 Act 120 of the Constitution, the President may "exercise the right of necessary inspection over banks of issue and other establishments of credit, in conformity with the laws."

CHAPTER VIII

SOCIAL CONDITIONS

Cost of Living, Travelling, Position of Foreigners, Commercial Laws

FROM the point of view of social conditions, Colombia offers to the observant traveller most vivid contrasts. In the capital of the Republic, in Medellin, in Barranquilla, Cartagena, Popayan and even in such small towns as Rionegro (Antioquia), the habits and methods of life of the inhabitants possess all the refinements found in European centres, having due regard, of course, to the limitations of any special locality and the wealth of individual members and of a community collectively. Bogotá, as becomes the capital, is an eminently social and hospitable city, offering to visitors all kinds of attractions and ways of agreeably passing the time. The clubs, of which the two leading examples are the Jockey Club and the Gun Club, give periodical dances, celebrated for the sumptuous setting and elegance which characterise them. Private individuals receive their guests either in splendid salons or modest drawing-rooms, but always with the utmost urbanity. From the early Colonial days, the Bogotános have been justly noted for the suavity and nobility of their manners.

Foreigners, who in other capitals of the South American countries find difficulties in forming relations in good society, experience no obstacles in Bogotá if provided with adequate introductions. Local society is very

accessible, frank and hospitable. The clubs have special regulations to facilitate the admission of foreigners, who, as temporary members, find every convenience granted to them.

It is difficult to classify the hotels of Bogotá, though there are those that are good, those that are fairly good, and those certainly not worthy of recommendation. Nor is price the best indication. Strangers to the City would do well to make cautious enquiries before finally electing to take up their abodes. The houses are usually well built and often most comfortably equipped. But the old Spanish type with open patios are the rule, which is perhaps not the best method of planning for so high a situation. But Bogotá, though some 8,000 ft. above sea-level, does not strike one as a cold city, indeed the temperature ranges between 58° and 60° F.; while there is the advantage of having close at hand, by means of a four or five hours railway journey, a district basking in a tropical temperature, somewhere about 86° F. This makes it easy to procure all the produce from both temperate and tropical zones. In the markets are all the garden produce and vegetables, potatoes, peas, wheat, and European fruit such as strawberries, apples, pears, peaches fresh and wholesome, side by side with pineapples, aligator-pears, bananas, chirimoya (Anona Humboldtiana) the produce of a tropical region. On the sabána surrounding the city, cattle of excellent quality are raised in abundance. Beef, mutton and pork can be obtained at the same price as in Europe, or, indeed, at rather cheaper rates. For this reason strangers who propose to make a lengthy stay in Bogotá, or who come

with their families, are well advised in hiring their private houses, rather than patronising hotels.

Cost of Living.—Tariffs in the dearest hotels vary from 12s. to 15s. per day. In other establishments it is possible to secure temporary lodgings with meals at much lower prices. However, owing to many difficulties, living in Bogotá cannot be said to be cheap. Though compared with such places as Rio de Janeiro or Buenos Aires, it is undeniably low; but the special conditions created by the monetary system, the high Customs tariffs and the difficulties of transport have combined to produce a disproportionate rise in the cost of comfortable and easy living.

Rent of houses and land has no relation to the cost of other necessaries. This is partly due to the constant variations in the exchange value of paper money and partly to the scarcity of a circulating medium. The unit of exchange in Colombia is the paper peso, or dollar, equivalent to 4s. of English money. It has been legally fixed that five Colombian pesos are equal to £1 sterling. As a result of this, and moreover owing to the last three prosperous years, English gold coins and Bank of England notes, have entered largely into the local circulation. So that visitors who have provided themselves with English gold will find no difficulty in the matter of exchange.

TRAVELLING.—To reach the capital from Europe the most natural access is by way of the Atlantic coast. There are three ports of entry, which we shall name in the order of their commercial importance: Barranquilla, which is united by rail to its place of disembarcation,

Puerto Colombia; Cartagena, whose bay is accessible to the largest steamships; and Santa Marta. From Barranquilla the interior of the Republic as far as La Dorada is entered by way of the Magdalena river, a journey of seven to eight days. At La Dorada passengers take the train on the Dorada Railway to Beltran or Ambalema, where they once more join the Magdalena, taking smaller steamers as far as Girardot. Owing to the stay of one night at Honda made by all trains, the run from La Dorada to Ambalema, which by direct route could be made in three or four hours, entails a twenty hours' journey. At Girardot, which is reached in another sixteen to twenty hours from Ambalema or Beltran, travellers enter trains on another railway, which transport them to Bogotá in from eight to ten hours. The cost of this journey, from the coast to the capital, apart from expense of luggage transport and hotel charges is between £12 and £14 for each person.

Barranquilla, which is well worth knowing, is progressing rapidly, and is an important social centre. There are two clubs: the Club Barranquilla and the German Club. There are several hotels. In the most expensive the tariff is about 12s. per day. The town, apart from its rather high temperature and inadequate sewerage, may be considered fairly healthy. It is the port through which the greater part of the export and import trade of the country passes.

Cartagena, an ancient town, surrounded by the substantial Spanish walls, is also a great social centre, society being very distinguished and somewhat ceremonious. Travellers desiring to reach the capital from this port,



A Modern Private House, Medellin



take train to Calamar, on the banks of the Magdalena, there to join the steamers from Barranquilla. Living is about as costly as it is at Barranquilla.

Santa Marta, which is also a very old Spanish town, has prospered greatly of late, being favoured by the rapid growth of the banana trade here and in its neighbourhood. In order to reach the interior from this port, it is necessary to go to Barranquilla, preferably by the Santa Marta Railway, which unites the plains with the Magdalena, and then by ferry across the river.

In order to reach Medellin travellers ascend the Magdalena as far as Puerto Berrio, thence there is a railway which leads into the interior of the Department of Antioquia. This railway is not yet completed, and part of the journey has to be made by means of coaches and motor-cars.

Position of Foreigners.—The laws of the country do not place foreigners under special disadvantages. They are assured of ample protection, both as regards personal liberty and property, and in time of war their condition is even better than that of Colombians.

It is advisable for foreigners to provide themselves with passports, because of the laws relating to anarchist propaganda. Nevertheless, in the interior foreigners run no risk of being incommoded by the authorities. The highways are safe, and there are no records of any foreigners having received personal injury while travelling.

As has been explained in another chapter, commercial travellers may bring in samples for exhibition without paying duty, by undertaking to re-export them at the expiring of a given date, and to pay duty on any goods not so re-exported. However, certain districts, such as Manizales, Cartagena, Cali, and others impose a tax on commercial travellers showing samples.

EDUCATION.—The people of Colombia have always distinguished themselves by a love of study. It has frequently been made a subject of reproach that the interest shown in assimilating general ideas incapacitates them from appreciating details and coldly registering accomplished facts. Yet the interest taken in the study of science has always corresponded with those periods of enthusiasm manifested at certain stages of their history for various experiments in education. Even in the Colonial days, under the auspices of the Church, an Institute of Secondary Education had been founded in Bogotá. From that period (1652) dates the Colegio del Rosario, also an institution of secondary instruction, which has had extraordinary success, and through which some of those Colombians most famous in science, in literature and in politics have passed. This College is still in existence and flourishing, giving courses in literature and philosophy. The National University of Bogotá, founded in 1867, has Faculties of Medicine, Law and Political Science, and to this institution are associated the Schools of Engineering and of National Sciences. The National Library, Astronomical Observatory, School of Fine Arts and the Academy of Music are also incorporated in the University. There is also in the capital a Seminary in which youths destined for the priesthood are educated. The Colegio de San Bartolomé, of ancient foundation, to-day under the direction of the Jesuit Fathers, imparts instruction to

young boys. A free Institute of learning, enjoying a good name in the country, and in which courses of Literature and Philosophy are held, and comprising Faculties of Law and Political Science, is the Universidad Republicana, which has withstood the assaults of political enemies, and throughout a difficult period has kept pace with the official seat of learning.

Elementary instruction, which attained a most flourishing stage between 1870 and 1880, as the result of the Government establishing Normal Schools with German Professors in the capitals of all States, gradually fell into evil days from 1886, owing to the precarious condition created by the war and the frequent changes of Government. Though the result of this inaction was long felt, it has been succeeded by a new impulse in favour of primary education. In certain departments, as in Antioquia and Caldas, Bolivar and Cauca, the Government's action in favour of elementary instruction is effectively seconded by the initiative of parents. In other regions, as in certain provinces of Cundinamarca and Boyacá, the average attendance at school is far below what might be expected from the census returns. The good intentions of the present Government have been nullified on the Constitutional law that education shall be free but not compulsory.

Besides the higher educational institutions in the capital of the Republic, there are Universities at Medellin, with Faculties of Medicine and law; at Cartagena, and at Popayan. The School of Mines at Medellin forms part of National University.

LITERATURE.—Colombian literature already possesses

a history, and may justly pride itself on names which are not only known all over the Continent, but even in Europe. The Spanish language in the Republic is the object of zealous study and the best Colombian writers serve as examples to other nations of the Continent. As the result of the natural inclination to letters, and owing to the fact that in the country as a whole there is no considerable immigration, the Spanish language has preserved its purity better than in other nations.

THE PRESS.—The daily Press affords ample testimony to the fact that Colombians are tenacious in their determination to keep their language free from foreign influences. The Press had a precarious life owing to the rude political shocks before 1902. Few of the daily papers were able to survive the violent political crises. Nevertheless, the period of peace inaugurated by President Reyes has been favourable to the development of periodical publications in Colombia. There are now some dailies which appear definitely to constitute a prosperous Press, and certain of these manifestly have great influence in political life. In Bogotá the oldest paper is El Nuevo Tiempo, and the one with the best news service is La Gaceta Republicano. Other prosperous journals are El Republicano and El Tiempo. In Cartagena El Porvenir is published; it is one of the oldest dailies in Colombia. In Barranquilla there are El Rigolleto, El Comercio and El Liberal. In Medellin La Prensa and the Espectador.

In Colombia the Press is absolutely free. Such laws as relate to the subject are scarcely in force, because the traditions of the Press have supplanted them. The

dailies treat all questions relating to the Administration, to religious ideas, to habits and customs of the people, with absolute liberty, and on occasions even bold effrontery. Nevertheless such independence and liberty of criticism is not aimless. Each paper has its policy, but it is a good sign that often such policy is subordinated to the criticism of facts or the examination of opposing ideas.

Commercial Laws.—According to the Colombian Constitution anybody in the enjoyment of civil rights, whether native born, naturalised or foreigners can take proceedings against another person in the civil courts, either personally or by attorney. A defendant may demand that a plaintiff shall provide a fitting guarantor for any costs that the plaintiff may be ordered to pay, but in place of a guarantor the plaintiff can pay into court such sum as the Judge may appoint. If this is done, the plaintiff may demand a similar guarantee or deposit from the defendant. Costs include postages; Government stamped paper used for claims, evidence, etc.; fees of witnesses and experts; other expenses incurred in the suit; legal charges of attorney or advocate.

By Articles 307 and 322 of Law 105 of 1890, parties may, even after proceedings at law have been commenced, refer the matters in dispute to arbitration. If this is agreed to the parties must execute a deed, on stamped paper, bearing the signature of two witnesses, setting forth: (1) The subject of dispute to be submitted to arbitration. (2) Names and descriptions of three arbitrators. (3) The nature of the award that the arbitrators are to direct, setting forth whether the

arbitrators must condemn or acquit the parties, or whether they may impose a compromise. The omission of any of these essentials renders the document null and void. The award is treated as the decision of a Judge, and is therefore subject to appeal under given conditions.

The Commercial Code (Law 57 of 1887) declares that "every person who according to the common laws is held capable to contract and bind himself is held equally capable to carry on trade" (Clause 11). Minors may under certain circumstances carry on trade (Clause 15), but bankrupts cannot until they have obtained their discharge (Clause 16). Every trader must (a) declare to his creditors the winding-up of every partnership, whether legally constituted or depending merely upon agreement, in which they can intervene as parties; (b) maintain a uniform and accurate system of accounts; (c) preserve all correspondence having reference to his business (Clause 24). Every wholesale trader must keep a (a) daybook; (b) ledger of current accounts; (c) register of assets and liabilities and balance sheet; (d) copying letter book (Clause 27). And every retail trader must keep a record of daily operations and a list of assets and liabilities, together with balance sheet, prepared at least every two years (Clause 28). Other books and records are optional. Special rules are laid down regarding the description of these books and of the entries to be made. No erasures or alterations must be made, all rectifications being made by separate entries (Clauses 37 and 38). Merchants must preserve the books and papers of their business until the termination at every point of the

winding-up of their business transactions. The same obligation rests upon their heirs.

Brokers are persons capable of trading, but electing to act as brokers or agents, and having their names and addresses entered on a Register. They must observe secrecy; cannot employ assistants, and must not trade, directly or indirectly, in those matters in which they usually deal; they may not acquire goods entrusted to themselves, or to other brokers, for sale (Clauses 65-91).

The civil law recognises five classes of bankruptcy:
(a) suspension of payment, (b) accidental insolvency,

(c) culpable bankruptcy, (d) fraudulent bankruptcy,

(e) absconding (Clause 122). Fraudulent bankruptcy is assumed when a bankrupt has failed to keep the prescribed books, or books in the prescribed manner, or when he fails to answer the summons of a Judge (Clause 128). The execution of deeds of assignment of property of traders is regarded as an act of bankruptcy (Clause 134). The regulations as to obtaining discharges are very stringent (Clauses 174-181).

Ordinary binding contracts may be made by word of mouth, by public or private written document, or through an authorised agent (Clause 183). An oral offer must be accepted at once, and a written offer within twenty-four hours by a person residing in the place where the offer is made, or by return of post by others; otherwise the offers are void, but if a later acceptance is made, any retraction of the offer must be made by return of post to avoid liability to an action for loss and damages (Clauses 184-185). Every trader can charge interest for deliveries made on credit, one month after

rendering an account, if the time of payment has not been specified, even though the debtor is not a trader (Clause 212). A seller must deliver the goods sold in the time and at the place agreed upon, but if no time has been fixed, then the seller must have the things sold ready for the buyer within twenty-four hours following the completion of the contract. If no place has been named, delivery shall be made in the place where the goods existed at the time of the sale (Clause 134).

Three kinds of commercial agency are recognised: (a) the Comisión (relating to specific mercantile transactions); (b) Preposición (when an agent is placed in the position of a manager); (c) Correduria y agencia de cambio (brokerage) (Clauses 331-462).

The law recognises four forms of commercial associations: (a) full partnership; (b) joint-stock companies; (c) limited partnership; (d) joint adventure.

A partnership is made between persons capable of trading by a written document made public and registered. This document must contain (a) the names and addresses of both parties; (b) partnership style; (c) names of partners charged with management and right of signing; (d) the capital introduced by each partner; (e) the scope of the partnership; (f) the share of profits or losses assigned to each partner; (g) time limit; (h) permissible annual drawings of each partner; (i) particulars as to division on winding-up; (j) arbitration provisions, if any; (k) registered address of the concern; (l) any other binding terms (Clauses 464-549).

A joint-stock company may sue and be sued. The liability of the members is limited to the amount of their

subscription (Clause 550). But an ordinary joint-stock company can only exist by complying with such regulations as apply to the registration of partnerships (Clause 551), and those projected for carrying out undertakings of public concern must be authorised by special law (Clause 553). All joint-stock companies must specify the time of their duration, unless such time limit is implicit in their deed of incorporation (Clause 446). Article 14 of the Constitution declares that companies constituted abroad "which are recognised in Colombia as juridical personalities, will not have rights other than those which appertain to Colombian persons." By Legislative Decrees Nos. 2 and 37 of 1906, foreign jointstock companies desiring to have permanent establishments in Colombia must record in the National Registry of the district in which their chief place of business is situated, a copy of their Act of Incorporation, copies of their Articles of Association, and evidence of their registration and permission to trade in their own country. Such companies must have a fully authorised local resident agent. They are not subject to any special tax.

Limited partnership (sociadad en comandita) are of two kinds: (a) Simple limited partnerships with a capital fund supplied wholly or in part by the limited partners and the working partners; (b) Limited partnership by shares, whose capital is contributed by shares subscribed by members whose names do not appear in the partnership instrument (Clause 597). Both clauses are subject to ordinary partnership law, but the limited partners (whose names may be omitted from the partnership instrument and need not appear in the official

abstract) are liable only to the extent of the capital they have invested (Clause 599).

A joint adventure (participación) "is a contract by which two or more traders take an interest in one or several mercantile ventures, contemporaneous or in succession, which must be carried out by one of them in his own name alone, and under his personal credit, with the obligation of rendering an account, and of dividing with his co-adventurers the gains or losses, in agreed proportion" (Clause 629). The Supreme Court has held that only traders may be joint-adventurers.

PATENTS.—According to Decree No. 909 of 1906 on Stamped Paper and National Stamp-Duty, patents of privilege must pay annually ten pesos gold on each invention.

TRADE MARKS.—By Decree No. 217 of 1900 it is enacted that any citizen, whether Colombian or foreigner, who is the proprietor of a Trade or Commercial Mark, may acquire the exclusive right to its use by Registration. The applicant, personally or by attorney, must appear at the Ministry of Public Works with a request for Registration, setting forth the distinctive sign which constitutes the mark, the article to which it refers, and the place of manufacture or production. This request must be made on stamped paper of the third class, and be accompanied by two copies (drawings or prints) of the mark, each bearing a stamp of the first class. The application is published in the official Gazette at the cost of the applicant, and if thirty days thereafter, if a Trade Mark, or sixty if a Commercial Mark, there should be no opposition, it is registered. A Trade Mark (Marca de Fabrica) is defined as "any phrase or sign employed in order to distinguish or define a particular product intended for trade or commerce." A Commercial Mark (Marca de Comercio) is defined as a "phrase or sign distinctive of an article of commerce intended to be associated with a particular commercial person or trading house." By Decree No. 217 of 1900, the dues payable on both classes of Mark are ten pesos gold.

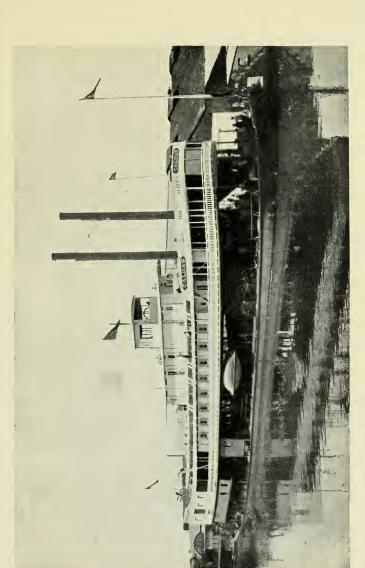
CHAPTER IX

INLAND COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORT

ONE of the greatest needs of Colombia, if not indeed the greatest of all, is the provision of facilities for inland traffic. Not only is a large part of the country still practically unexplored, but even districts which are comparatively densely populated are often left in strange isolation owing to the lack of railroads and highways. It is this fact that makes travelling in the Republic slow and costly, and the transport of goods a matter of serious concern. No doubt the configuration of this very mountainous country with its deep valleys and rolling llanos, explains much of the present condition of affairs, because the engineering and financial problems to be overcome are considerable. Nevertheless it will be found, especially when the railroads and highways of the country are being examined, that past political history has had much to do with both the deeds of commission and omission; with the new era, therefore, we may justly look for greater wisdom and swifter progress.

We have already dealt with certain provisions for inland navigation, and meagre though these be, it will be found that the river system plays an almost predominant part in traffic possibilities when the country is viewed as a whole.

In regard to river traffic the Magdalena stands preeminent. In its course of about 1,060 miles (of which 930 are navigable), it traverses nearly three-fourths of



River Magdalena—Stern-Wheel Steamer " Caldas"



the central part of the Republic, and by means of its tributaries taps many of the most thickly populated of the agricultural and industrial regions. Unfortunately, although the fourth largest river in South America, it partakes for long stretches the character of a mountain stream. Broadly speaking, the river is navigable for large steamers from the Atlantic almost up to Honda, a distance of about 1.000 kilometres; for small steamers from above Honda to Neiva; for boats and rafts up to the confluence of the Paez. As a matter of fact. however, there are numerous obstacles to be met with. Much dredging and rectification of banks are required in the lower reaches before large steamers can enjoy a free and easy course all the year round. Real difficulties begin at Honda, just above which are the celebrated Fall and Rapids of that name. These cause most of the steamers to anchor a short distance below the port. For up-country traffic this stoppage generally takes place at La Dorada, where there is a short railway running to Honda and then on to Ambalema. By using this railway passengers avoid the Falls of Honda and the narrow straits of Colombaima, where the river races between high rocky cliffs. At Ambalema passengers and goods once more join the river, a short distance by small steamer being traversed before reaching Girardot, where the railway to Bogotá begins. The steamers continue up to Neiva, and then further progress must be made by canoes, or the peculiar raft-boats known as Champans. On the banks of the Magdalena are numerous ports, some little more than wharfs and warehouses. The river has also many tributaries. Soon after leaving

Barranquilla on the south bank is Calamar, the river port and railhead of the Cartagena railway. Just above, on the north bank, is Heredia, an important collecting depot of the rich agricultural Magdalena plains. Higher up, on the south bank, is the mouth of the Cauca. regular service of steamers ply up the river from Barranquilla to Valdivia; also up a tributary of the Cauca, the Nechi, as far as Zaragoza. The Cauca is used on many of its stretches by both steamers and rafts, assisting in traffic between such towns as Cali and Cartago, but the bed is in many parts impassable owing to falls and rocks. Returning to the Magdalena we find on its north bank the river Cesar, which affords a waterway through fertile regions to the Valle Dupar and the Goajira Peninsula. Here is also the mouth of the partly navigable Lebrija, which runs south-east, steamers going as far as Estación Santander, champans continuing the voyage to Puerto Santos, where the pack-mule trail commences. Other tributaries useful as collecting and distributing channels are the Opon and Carare, opening up the country of Santander; the Sogamoso, tapping Santander and Boyacá and the Nare, traversing part of Antioquia. To return once more to the main stream of the Magdalena, Jesus del Rio and Zambrano are important as the coffee and tobacco depots of Bolivar; Magangué is the gateway to the cattle-raising plains of Corozal. From Puerto Wilches a railway is under construction to Bucaramanga, which district is also served by La Gloria, Bodega de Carmen, and Bodega del Sur. From Puerto Berrio a railway runs south-west to La Quiebra and is being v continued to Medellin.

It has already been said that the navigation of the Magdalena is by no means easy, this is due to sandbanks, rocks, and at certain seasons lack of water. Consequently the service is apt to be slow and somewhat irregular, moreover, it is extremely expensive owing to the frequent transhipments. In his report to the Board of Trade, Mr. G. T. Milne says: "With a view to improving conditions a canalisation tax is imposed on both exports and imports, the product being applied to the acquisition and upkeep of dredges." The work is carried out under the direction of the Minister of Public Works and a Canalisation Board. According to a recent decree the tax is as follows—

In 1912 this tax yielded about 117,000 dollars gold, on an import cargo of 44,500 tons and an export cargo of 53,300 tons. Mr. Milne adds: "While the Canalisation Board probably does something to improve navigation, to deal effectively with the problem (which is stated to be getting more serious every year owing to the diminished amount of water in the rivers through deforestation) technical advice of the best kind available would be necessary, with presumably the expenditure of very large sums of money. At present canalisation works on an extensive scale might prove to be beyond the country's resources, although a loan, secured on the

revenue derived from the tax and expended by responsible foreign engineers and contractors, might greatly improve existing conditions. The first essential would be a thorough investigation of the problem by a competent engineer. If his report should be favourable to expenditure a loan could presumably be arranged on condition that the collection of the tax by the lending house was satisfactorily provided for. In the event of the necessary works being deemed beyond the country's resources, the only solution of the difficulty would seem to be for the Government to assist such railway enterprises as would tend to facilitate communication between the littoral and the interior. Eventually a trunk line, linking up existing and projected railways, may cross the country from ocean to ocean; but it seems improbable that a work of this magnitude will be undertaken in the near future."

Before discussing this and other aspects of the railway problem we must say a few words about the steamboat accommodation in the Magdalena, and also on the other navigable waterway systems of the Republic. That such facilities as the Magdalena offers should largely monopolise attention is explained when we realise that close upon 80 per cent. of the value of imports, and over 60 per cent. of the exports pass through the Customs of Barranquilla and Cartagena, and as only a small proportion of these goods remain in the two cities, or are distributed in their neighbourhoods by rail or carts, or transhipped to Santa Marta, it is clear what a preponderating part this river plays in the business life of the country. While there is a fair amount of competition in the provision of steamboat service, the two leading

organisations are a local company, the Empresa Hanseatica, and an English company, the Empresa Aliadas, both of which are managed by Colombian firms. The Hanseatica has a fleet of seven steamers of 1,269 tons in all, and the Aliadas twenty-nine steamers of over 6,000 tons. These steamers, and those of other owners, are flat-bottomed stern-wheelers, drawing little water and designed on the lines of the American river steamboats. A weekly express mail service to Bogotá, and intermediate services, are run by the Aliadas for a monthly Government subsidy of £1,000. Passenger rates and cargo freights are on a tariff approved by the Government, rebates being allowed on certain classes of goods. Thus the charge for carriage of general merchandise from Puerto Colombia to La Dorado, thence over rail to Arranca Plumas, then by river, and again by rail to Bogotá is about £12 per ton, calculated thus in gold dollars per ton-

Railway freight, F	uerto Cole	ombia	a to Barr	an-	
quilla					3.63
River freight, Bar	ranquilla	to La	Dorado		14.0
Sundry charges:	Manifest	and	Stamps		1.60
Loading river ste	amer				.60
Canalisation tax					2.0
Customs despatch	١				.20
Cartage					.10
Commission				٠.	1.20
Through freight, I	La Dorado	-Bog	gotá	٠.	35.35
					58.68

The through rates from Cartagena are the same. It should be noted that there is a rebate of 25 per cent. on the river freights for agricultural and mining machinery,

tools and wire netting, and 50 per cent. on railway material.

Mention has already been made of the CAUCA, which taps part of Bolivar, Antioquia, Caldas, El Valle and Cauca. It is navigable from the Magdalena, near Magangué, to Rio Nuevo; but thence to the city of Antioquia the river is impassable. Above that there is a considerable reach of fair waterway, a busy traffic being kept up from a little above Cali and rather beyond Cartago. The Nechi and other tributaries bring additional traffic to this river, giving access to districts lying eastward.

The Sinu, draining the low-lying cattle and sugar plantation lands of western Bolivar, is open to steamers from the Gulf of Cispata to Monteria.

Going west, there is the Atrato, falling into the Gulf of Darien and navigable as far as Quibdo. Plans have been prepared for a short canal from Cupica Bay, by which this river would be given an outlet into the Pacific.

While the eastern slopes of the Cordillera and wide valley of the department of El Valle is served by the Cauca, the western slope and coastal forest regions are served by the San Juan, which is open for steamers from Buenaventura to San Pablo, and for small boats to Dipurdu. There is a project to join the San Juan with the Atrato by canalisation, which would also have the effect of giving direct water communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific. But the engineering difficulties are very considerable and the probable cost, in view of the class of possible traffic, appears prohibitive.

The PATIA drains the south-western border of Cauca

and the western part of Nariño, flowing into the Pacific not far from the Ecuadorian frontier.

On the eastern side, the META rising in the Cerro del Nevado (where snow-capped peaks, 14,140 ft. above sea-level, feed enormous glaciers), lying to the south-west of Bogotá, skirts the foot-hills of the Eastern Cordillera, and, flowing through the great territory of Meta and the southern border of the Comisaria of Arauca, which is tapped by tributaries, joins the Orinoco at the Venezuelan frontier, and affords an outlet into the Atlantic through Lake Maracaibo.

The GUAVIARE river rises on the southern slope of the Cerro del Nevado, and just below Uribe is joined by the Ariari, which rises in the foot-hills of the Cordillera de Sumapaz and passes by the town of Arana. The Guaviare continuing with a north-eastward trend, cuts the Meta territory almost in two and flows into the Orinoco. One day it may become of great importance. The Yupura, which flows right through the Caqueta territory, tapping it right and left by means of many tributaries, and the Putumayo, south of the Caqueta, both of which flow into the Marañon, are waterways whose usefulness are bound to be largely developed in the near future.

Other rivers are navigable, though they are generally tributaries of the systems already mentioned. Some particulars of these will be found in the chapter on *Ports and Harbours*.

RAILWAYS.—For the moment the railways of Colombia present an extraordinary absence of systematic development. There are fourteen lines, ranging from 15 to 55

miles in length, dotted about the country, few having any direct connection with any other. This seemingly haphazard scattering of short stretches of railways in isolated districts is to a considerable extent the result of the old Sovereign State regime, when there were seven or eight Governments each ambitious to enter into the civilised world's race for railway construction, but without much regard to what their neighbours were doing, or to the needs of the Confederation as a whole.

Two of the obviously necessary lines are those of the Barranquilla and the Cartagena railways, both owned by English companies. The first is 15 miles long and links up Puerto Colombia with Barranquilla, and has a capital (in shares and bonds) of £300,000. The second runs between Cartagena and Calamar on the Magdalena, a distance of 65 miles; it has a capital of £1,350,000. The Barranquilla railway carries four times as many passengers and rather over twice as many goods as the Cartagena line. Both perform a useful purpose, yet they entail an expensive system of transhipment.

Santa Marta Railway. Santa Marta, whose port is regularly visited by the Elders-Fife line as well as the ships of the United Fruit Company and the Hamburg American line, is the starting-point of a railway, owned by the English Santa Marta Railway Company, Ltd. (capital, shares and bonds, £506,370), which runs to Cienega on the river Fundación. It has 72 miles of track, and is moreover fed by about 10 miles of short private lines serving banana plantation estates. There is a project to carry the line to Banco on the Magdalena, near to its confluence with the Cesar. This would add about 135 miles to the line.

On the Pacific coast the Cauca railway, which was started forty years ago and has had a chequered career, is now in the hands of a local company, the Companía del Ferrocarril del Pacifico. It has a paid-up share capital of 854,000 dollars gold, and a bonded debt floated in London of £119,200. Its line runs from Buenaventura towards Cali, which it has nearly reached, about 83 miles being open and in operation.

Harking back to the Magdalena, at a point known as Puerto Wilches we find the *Great Central Northern Railway Company*, *Ltd.* (an English concern with a share and bond capital of £1,001,760; the Government of Colombia holding £50,000 of shares), constructing a line to Bucaramanga, of which over 12 miles are completed. This company secured the right to prolong its line from Bucaramanga, so as to form a junction with the Ferrocarril del Norte.

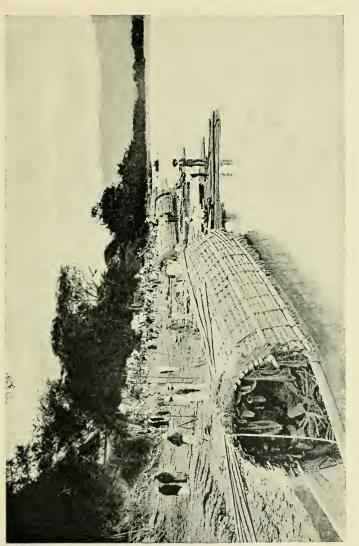
Higher up the river, on the west bank, is busy Puerto Berrio, where commences the Antioquia Railway (which is owned by the department). It is now nearly completed as far as Medellin, a distance of 120 miles. Practically an extension of this railway is being run from Medellin through Amaga to the Cauca river. This extension now reaches Caldas, 19 miles distant, and still has to be carried another 23 miles. Mr. Milne states that freights on this railway, from Puerto Berrio to Cisneros (109 kiloms.) are 20 cents gold on general merchandise, 18 cents on cotton yarn, petroleum, flour and salt, and 15 cents on machinery, galvanised iron, wire fencing and steel, all per ton-kilometre.

Some distance farther up on the west bank, just below

Honda, commences the La Dorada Railway, owned by the Dorada Extension Railway, Ltd., with a capital of £700,000. As elsewhere already explained, three of its Stations, La Dorada, Honda and Arranca Plumas are on the Magdalena, and there is an extension to Ambalema. Its chief reason for existence is to act as a portage, carrying all passengers and goods traffic between La Dorada and Ambalema, thus avoiding the impassable rapids about Honda. It also receives much traffic from Manizales and elsewhere, which comes over the Quindio pass road. The main, or river skirting line, is 31 miles long, and the extension 51.

Still higher up, at Girardot, commences a narrow gauge railway, owned by the English *Colombian National Railway Company*, *Ltd.* (capital £900,000, one-third owned by the Government, and a bonded debt of £1,480,000).

The 82 miles of the Colombiano National Railway end at Facatativa, whence another railway of 24 miles starts for Bogotá across the plateau. It carries over 70 per cent. of traffic to and from the Sabana of Bogotá, though up to 1913 more than half of the total found its way down to the valley by way of the Honda mule track and the Camboa cart road. (Bogotá itself is the centre of four railways serving the Cundinamarca plateau. Besides the *Girardot line* there is the Sabana (practically owned by the Government), which has 25 miles out, to Facatativa. The Ferrocarril del Norte, owned by the English Colombian Northern Company, Ltd. (capital, shares and bonds, £780,000) has a 29 mile line to Zipaquira. It has made over its concession



The Port of Girardot, on the Magdalena



for the construction of an extension from its terminus to Chiquinquira, where it would connect up with an extension from Bucaramanga, to the Colombian Central Railway Company, a short branch (9 miles) connecting Zipaquira and Nemocon. The Ferrocarril del Sur, the property of the Government, runs from Bogotá to Sibaté, a distance of 19 miles. It is proposed ultimately to link up Girardot with Ibagué, in Tolima. Work has already been commenced on this Tolima Railway, which is the property of the Government, from the Ibagué end, about 15 miles being in working order.

North-east of Bucaramanga, in Norte de Santander, is the go-ahead town of Cucuta. In 1888 its merchants, with the assistance of the Municipality which owns a third share, constructed a railway 37 miles long to Puerto Villamizar, on the Zulia river; subsequently an extension of 10 miles was made to the Venezuelan frontier, joining the town of Chiguara.

Such is the railway position to-day. The Government is credited with projects to link up these various isolated lines. The Buenaventura line to Cali would be carried north, passing through various towns, to join the Cauca-Medellin line and so through to Puerto Berrio. Thence it would turn south to join the Dorada line, where a branch would run to Tocaima on the Girardot line, thus linking up with Bogotá. From Bogotá the Norte is to be prolonged to Chiquinquira, forming a conjunction with the Bucaramanga line to Puerto Wilches. A line across the Quindio would connect Cartago with Girardot, and a branch line from Medellin would run to the Gulf of Uraba. A branch would run-from Girardot to La

Plata, while the Buenaventura railway would be run south through Popayan and Pasto to the Ecuadorian frontier. To complete the network, a branch would be built from Bucaramanga to Cucuta. Thus only the three Atlantic lines would be left unconnected.

A free hand has been reserved by the Government in the matter of railway construction. A law passed in 1892 gives power to the Executive to grant concessions without reference to the Legislature. Subsidies may be granted in the form of not more than 300 hectars of public lands, plus a sum not exceeding 10,000 dollars gold, payable in 6 per cent. amortisable bonds, per kilometre open to traffic; or a guarantee for not more than twenty years of interest not exceeding 7 per cent. on capital actually invested, and not exceeding 30,000 dollars gold per kilometre open to traffic. This guarantee ceases if and when the railway succeeds earning in three consecutive years a profit sufficient to pay the guaranteed interest. A concession may be given for as long as 100 years. As a rule, the Government reserves power to purchase the railway at any time after fifty years on valuation, and after seventy-five years on payment of 50 per cent. of actual value.

It will be readily gathered from what has been said above that when all allowances have been made for river traffic and railway service, the commerce of the country as a whole is still chiefly dependent on ordinary land transport. While in a few districts, mainly in the immediate neighbourhood of a few of the big cities, there are good high-roads, available for public and private motor traffic, and a rather larger mileage open to heavily built carts, most places are only accessible for foot

passengers, pack-horses and mules, over more or less well defined tracks.

Roads.—On the Sabana of Bogotá some excellent highways are to be found. The most notable of these is the Carretera Central del Norte, which unites Bogotá to Santa Rosa in Boyacá. It passes through the municipalities of Usaquen, Chia, Cajica, Sopo, Tocancipa, Gachancipa, Nemocon, Suesca, Choconta, Villa Pinzon, Boyacá and Santa Rosa, a distance of 200 miles, and is traversable by carriages and motors. Next in importance is the Carretera de Cambao, uniting Bogotá with Cambao some 130 miles away on the Magdalena. These are supplemented by a number of smaller roads and bridle paths. In Antioquia the good cart roads also radiate from the capital. There is the North Eastern road to Santo Domingo, the southern to Caldas, and others to Envigado and La Quiebra. In Atlantico the only cart road is that between Barranquilla and Usiacuri, about 30 miles long. In Bolivar there are projects for highways uniting Barranquilla with Calamar and Turbaco, and another between Monteria and Magangué. In Boyacá fairly good branch roads from the great North Road unite Quetame with Sogamoso and so with the Magdalena, the other running out to Carare. Over a mile of the new road to unite Samaca, Sachica and Chiquinquira, has been constructed. In El Valle a road of some 40 miles unites Buga and Palmira. In Norte de Santander the Carretera Central del Norte is under construction, and is making slow progress. In Santander the only cart road is between Bucaramanga and Florida, a distance of about 15 miles. It is not a long list.

Apart from these are several well-known and much frequented tracks, some traversed by horses and mules, others only possible for foot passengers. The most famous of these is the Quindio road, which may be entered from Girardot on the Magdalena, touching at Ibagué and then over the Central Cordillera by the Quindio Pass into the Cauca valley to Cartago. Another ancient and much frequented road is that from Neiva on the Magdalena, across the paramos of Guanacas and Coconucos on the Central Cordillera to Popoyan. A track is being made between Quibdo, capital of the Choco territory, to Bolivar.

Many of these tracks are difficult at the best of times, and even the good ones are often impassable in the rainy season. Mules are preferred to horses, as being hardier and more sure-footed. For pack mules a load, or cargo, is limited to two packs of from 60 to 70 kilogs. each, according to the route to be traversed, and for light but bulky loads 300 cubic decimetres is the limit. For the more difficult tracks and passes smaller and lighter packs are necessary as they have to be carried on men's or women's backs. In all districts mule and carrier contractors will be found, with their strings of well trained beasts or human porters.

It is obvious that for such transport as this careful packing is essential, not only as regards size and weight, but the strength of the cases or bales and the outer waterproof covering.

In the past very serious mistakes have been made in connection with the sending out of heavy merchandise. While wonders have been done in transporting machinery

into the interior, for instance railway material to the Bogotá plateau before the days of the Girardot and cart roads, on the other hand it has often happened that expensive mining and milling machinery, sent out from Europe, has had to be abandoned in the forest as being too bulky and heavy.

CHAPTER X

HARBOURS AND PORTS

TAKING the seaports in order of their importance Puerto Colombia, sometimes called Savanilla, comes easily first, not only on the Atlantic coast, but in the whole Republic. It lies slightly to the west of the mouth of the Magdalena, and is the chief port of call for all steamers from Europe and the United States. As a matter of fact Puerto Colombia is the modern and seawardly situated suburb of the older port and town of Savanilla, but even now there is very little water inshore, so that a screwpile pier, a mile long, though soon to be extended by 20 ft., has been constructed for the accommodation of vessels. Steamers drawing 25 ft. of water can be berthed at the pierhead, there being room for two large and two small vessels. From the pierhead four lines of rails connect with the single track railway to Barranquilla, which is the real port and the Customs headquarters. Both pier and railway are the property of the Barranguilla Railway and Pier Company, Ltd., which has a capital of £200,000 in shares and £100,000 in bonds. Puerto Colombia and Savanilla are in themselves quite small places, having a population of 1,202.

Barranquilla, 17 miles up stream from Puerto Colombia on the western bank, is the true port. Founded in 1629, it was not until the middle of last century that its advantages as a trade distributing centre was recognised, and for long it maintained an unequal struggle with its near by sister city of Cartagena, but to-day it holds the premier place, where the chief Custom House of the Republic is situated and the most developed business and manufacturing circles are found. It has good quays, ship repairing yards, great warehouses, public markets, water supply, electric lighting and tramways, theatres, public buildings of various descriptions, including a fair number of educational establishments. Railway communication is provided not only with Puerto Colombia, but with Cartagena, and steam launches connect the city with Santa Marta. Barranquilla is also the headquarters for the various lines of river steamers which take up country by far the largest percentage of imports, and bring down a very considerable portion of produce and manufactures for export. In a few words, it is Colombia's most conspicious traffic exchange, both for passengers and goods. Hotels, banks, clubs and many other conveniences exist. There are projects for dredging and otherwise improving the Ceniza mouth of the Magdalena, so as to permit ocean-going liners to steam right up to the port. It has a population of 21.138.

Catagena, the old "Queen of the Indies," seated on an island in the bay of that name, presents a delightful picture, with its old-world fortifications and public buildings. Although somewhat difficult to enter, the port is extensive and safe, with all necessary facilities for rapid handling of cargoes. The quay, on which the Custom House stands, belongs to a British concern, the Cartagena Railway Company, Ltd., whose line runs to Calamar, just above Barranquilla on the Magdalena.

At present much of the trade to and from the Sinu and Atrato districts pass through Cartagena. The city, which has a population of 17,210, possesses a number of flourishing manufacturing industries.

There are two other ports of the Atlantic. That furthest east is Riohacha, a small town at the mouth of the Rio Hacha, or Rio Rancheria, on the Goajira Peninsula, and has a population of 9,426. Practically there is no harbour, the water being very shallow all goods are transported from and to ship by means of lighters. At present the trade of the port is carried on chiefly by sailing vessels from Santa Marta, though steamers call occasionally. It is the natural outlet and inlet for the Goajira Peninsula, which is almost entirely inhabited by Indians. Trade is confined to the export of horses and cattle, hides, pearls, brazil and divi-divi woods, which the Indians bring in and exchange for the imported hardware and textiles.

Further to the west on the mouth of the river Manzanares, lies Santa Marta, the excellent harbour being well protected and offering good berths at wharfs for ocean steamers. Founded in 1525, it long enjoyed the rank of a leading town, then sank into comparative insignificance, to be revived by the rise of the banana trade. It is a well planned, bright little town, with all the public buildings to be expected in the capital of a department, also having a large market, hospital, electric lighting, etc. While there is a fair general trade done here, the overshadowing industry is the exportation of bananas, which are grown in the fertile, low-lying lands in the Magdalena valley. These plantations are connected

with Santa Marta by a short railway and its feeders. There is a project for continuing the railway to Valle Dupar, which would tap a rich agricultural and mining district, at present inadequately served by boat and canoe service on the Cesar River. Enormous possibilities for the growth of the banana trade exist in this extensive district.

It is probable that some day that magnificent sheet of water known as the Gulf of Darien will be developed as a harbour. This will certainly be the case if the scheme for dredging the Atrato and the San Juan, and joining the two heads by a deep cutting, thus forming a canal between the Atlantic and the Pacific, is carried out. It extends well inland, is securely protected, provides safe anchorage on a sandy bottom at depths varying from 41 to 10 fathoms, is provided with fresh water by two streams, the rivers Tuira and Sabana, and could be made by means of roads the collecting centre for the Atrato river. At present the bay is surrounded by dense forests, mangroves making an almost complete fringe to the bay. Mahogany, palms and rubber trees grow in profusion, and so fertile is the soil that sugar, coffee and cocoa grow almost without cultivation.

On the Pacific coast three ports are recognised: Buenaventura, Guapi and Tumaco.

Buenaventura lies on an island on the south side of the River Buenaventura or San Juan, ten miles from its mouth. This broad stream is navigable up to the city by vessels drawing 24 ft. of water, though they cannot approach the bank, and there being no wharf, lighterage is necessary. This is a pity, as the port possesses many natural advantages and is known as one of the beauty spots of the country. A railway is being run from the port inland to Cali. Buenaventura is the gateway not only to the Choco territory, but to the Cauca country. It exports coffee, hides, ivory, nuts, rubber, gold, platinum, and imports provisions, salt and manufactured goods.

Guapi is a village some hundred miles south of Buenaventura, and although the seat of a Custom House, at present does little trade. But a beginning has been made towards the opening up of the timber industry. There are considerable mineral possibilities in the neighbourhood, while a new road across the Cordillera from Popayan to Micay, just south of the port, may in time be found a useful trade route.

Tumaco, 5 miles south of Boca Grande, is the frontier town on the Ecuadorian border and is situated on three islands, Tumaco, Viciosa and El Moro, all lying in the mouth of the Labarra or Rosario river. The existing entrance to the port is through a somewhat narrow channel at the eastern end of El Moro. Ships of 21 ft. draught find safe anchorage, but all cargo is handled by lighter. The town is of some importance, and although the present trade (exports, coffee, cocoa, hides, ivory, nuts, rubber, and gold dust; imports, clothing, provisions, and manufactured goods) is slight, the opening of the Panama canal and a policy of road construction may soon cause rapid development.

It would be absurd to write about the ports and harbours of Colombia without dealing with the river ports, for the rivers of this country are not only trade highways, but in a large measure a prolongation of the open trade routes of the seas.

On the Magdalena, just above Barranquilla, is Calamar, where the Cartagena railway ends. Puerto Wilches (population 1,912) is the river terminus of the Bucaramanga railway. About 100 miles higher up, and 500 miles from Barranquilla, is Puerto Berrio (population 4,553) the river terminus of the Medellin Railway. Then comes La Dorada where a railway commences, touching at Honda and continuing to Ambalema to avoid the falls of Honda. Practically navigation for large steamers end below Honda, but this port (population 5,433) is a thriving commercial centre. Girardot (population 4,456) there is the head of the railway to Bogotá. Next in importance after this is Neiva (population 9,599). It must be remembered that the Magdalena is navigable almost up to Honda for large steamers, and then up to its conjunction with the river Paez for boats and rafts: moreover, it receives upwards of 500 affluents in its course of 1,055 miles, of which several are open to steamers, and most to boats and canoes.

Cali (population 11,822) is the principal port on the Cauca, which is navigable by steamers up to Cartago, and by smaller boats up to Magangué (population 6,099). Other stretches of the river are open to small steam launches and boats. Banco is at the confluence of the Cesar with the Magdalena, Bodega Central and Bodega Sogamoso are respectively at the confluences of the rio Lebrija and the Sogamoso, and are the collecting posts for trade to and from Bucaramanga.

The Atrato, which flows into the outer bay of Darien, has two important ports, one a mere entrepos at the confluence of the Napipi, 189 miles from the mouth, which can be reached by large steamers, and Quibdo (population 15,000) 130 miles higher up. Above this boats and quite steamers run up to Lloro and El Quito.

The San Juan, which is partly blocked by a sand bar, has the ports of Noanama and Dipurdu, where there are rapids and steamer service ends, but boats go up as far as San Pablo (population 4,716), 139 miles from the mouth.

On the Meta, a tributary of the Orinoco, the chief port is Orocué (population 556), which is reached by steamer from the Venezuelan town of Ciudad Bolivar, on the Orinoco.

CHAPTER XI

FORESTS AND FOREST PRODUCTS

It is difficult to arrive at any serviceable computation as to the extent of the Colombian forests. Although they are met with in practically every one of the Departments and Territories, and are known to be of enormous value, little exact data has so far been gathered. Caldas, Colombia's martyred scientific Botanist, placed the limit of forest growth at 3,365 metres above sea level, and that of vegetation at 4,328, which has been confirmed by later observers.

In the warm zone, which extends over nearly threefifths of the country, palms may be said to be the dominant feature of the forests. There are an immense variety of this species. Among the most important of these are the coconut palm; the phytelephas macrocarpa, producing the tagua or vegetable-ivory nut; the myroxilum toluitera and copaitera officinalis, producing respectively balsams of Tolu and copaiba; the ceroxylon Andicola, or wax palm; the manto, whose bark produces seamless sacks, and many others. Besides these we must mention the much appreciated cedars, mahogany (both the true mahogany and its best substitute, cariniana pyriformis), bread fruit trees, the curious milk tree, the guayacan (an intensely hard wood, much used locally for railway purposes and in mining), and several timbers utilised in building and cabinet-making work. In a special class among these are the rubber producing trees, including the Sapium

Tolimensis, or white caoutchene, Castilloa elastica, Hevea, the milk tree, etc., balata, and other species yielding a kind of gutta-percha. Allied to these are the many resiniferous trees, among which may be specified the elaegia utilis of the Caqueta region, producing a beautiful resin, known as Pasto varnish; the arraco, yielding a brilliant rose varnish, which becomes a deep, brilliant black if mixed with the juice of the yuca leaves; the currucai (isica herelophila) producing a white, aromatic resin, rich in turpentine, which on testing resembles highclass Burgundy pitch, and others. There are also numerous trees yielding dyewoods and tannins. the giants of the tropical forests we find such valuable smaller growths as the cinchonas (in several varieties); wild cocoa trees, bearing scanty crops of small beans rich in oil; ginger; ipecacuanha; sarsaparilla; vanilla; not to mention gorgeous orchids and beautiful shrubs and plants which have been introduced into our gardens and hot-houses.

In the temperate zone, covering nearly one-third of the country, at an altitude of between 1,000 and 2,600 metres, with a mean temperature of between 17 and 22° C., we find a fair number of the tropical trees and shrubs mixed with tree ferns, oaks, and the very useful algarroba or locust bean tree. The wax palm, which appeared in small numbers in the warm zone, is here more abundant, and persists right through the cold region. Here, too, will be found in rich profusion the American agave, which tapped for its fermentable juice (pulque), is specially valued for its hennequen fibre.

In the cold zone, between 2,600 and 3,300 metres

above sea, forming about one-eighth of the country, the outstanding forest trees are resiniferous pines, wax palms, oaks and walnuts. It is also within this zone that the best cinchona bark is found.

Most of the dense forests are found in the valleys, such as those of the Magdalena, the upper Sinu, Sogamoso, the Meta, Patia, the great basin of the Putumayo and such coastal regions as the Goajira Peninsula and the Choco Territory. Very little has hitherto been done to exploit these riches on an economic scale. Yet, immense as the forests undoubtedly are, complaints are already heard as regards disforestation, especially in the valleys of the Magdalena, Cauca, Sogamoso, etc., which results in the progressive falling of water in the rivers, thus rendered more difficult to navigate. This state of affairs is due not so much to the clearing of National and Departmental forests by agricultural colonists, as to the fact that wood is almost the only fuel, outside of very restricted areas. It is not only used domestically and for manufacturing purposes, but also for firing steamboat and railway locomotive boilers. Along the navigable rivers and the railways huge stacks of wood have to be kept at frequent intervals, for the annual consumption in this way is immense. Moreover, very liberal grants of forest land are made in connection with mining enterprises, the trees being cut down wholesale not only for timbering purposes, but for fuel. Unquestionably there is much waste in these directions due to badly directed energies. Apart from this the Government regulations for controlling forest exploitation are sound enough. Grants are made for units of not more than 3,000 hectares.

Concessionaires may receive two or more units, but such units must be separated by tracts of not less than 3,000 hectares. Grants are made for only one clearly specified line of exploitation: the cutting down of timber trees; gathering of locust beans, coco-nuts, of ivory nuts, of rubber, gums and resins, of barks, of vanilla, medicinal herbs, orchids or horticultural specimens. However, a concessionaire is often granted the rights for two or more kinds of exploitations. As a rule only mature trees may be cut down, and provision is made for natural growth. Nut, resiniferous and gum trees must be exploited in such a manner as only to gather the year's crop, without harming the trees. It is extremely doubtful, however, whether these regulations are observed as strictly as they should be.

As regards rubber and gutta-percha, up to the present the trade is practically confined to the gathering of the latex from wild trees in the National forests, a business largely confined to Indians, negroes, and a limited class of white and mestizo caucheros. If anything is to be done with the trade on a big scale, regular planting will have to be undertaken. Most of the rubber now comes from the forests of Antioquia, Cauca, Nariño (chiefly derived from Amozone valley and the Pacific), and the Choco.

For coco-nut the principal centres are Antioquia and El Valle. For tagua, the Sogamoso valley, Nariño, the Choco and the Goajira Peninsula. The Choco also exports much dyewoods, vanilla, pita and other fibres.

Few things in the commercial history of a nation are more tragic than the story of cinchona in Colombia. At one time the bark of the many varieties grown within the country were eagerly sought after, for the extraction

of its valuable febrifuge, the sulphate. But when the plant began to be acclimatised in the east, prices suddenly fell to so low a figure that it no longer became profitable to collect the bark in South America, and thus within a few short years a big export trade, forming much of the wealth of such a country as Colombia, was wiped out, apparently with little hope of revival.

As regards timber, considering the untapped wealth, very little has been done to develop the trade. For many years past there have been a number of sawmills, run by foreign capital, to exploit the mahogany and other woods of the upper Sinu; and there are also sawmills in the Choco territory. These last may assume special importance after the opening of the Panama Canal, which will coincide with local railway and mining developments.

It must be confessed that there are several obstacles to the economical development of the timber trade. First is the fact, common to the majority of tropical and semi-tropical forests, that different species though well represented are rather widely scattered. Mahogany, cedars, castilloas, do not grow in more or less closely connected clumps, but appear mostly as isolated specimens. This, of course, adds to the difficulty and cost of exploitation when handling bulk timber. The drawback is not quite so apparent when dealing with the gathering of nuts or the more precious resins. These remarks also apply to the difficulties of transport.

It may be said, therefore, that while the forests of Colombia offer great possibilities of wealth, they require very careful study and special means of exploitation.

CHAPTER XII

AGRICULTURE

AGRICULTURE, including cattle raising, though still in its infancy, is the real mainstay of the Colombian people. It is carried on in every part of the country, under widely varying conditions, but mostly on quite primitive lines. For instance, locally intensive cultivation is understood thus: a tract of virgin forest, in the mountainous region, is cleared of its useful woods, and the remainder is burned down, then for two or three years, four at the utmost, crops of cereals and vegetables are raised, and when the ground is exhausted of its fertilising ashes and native salts, the land is abandoned. It is extremely rare to find fertilisers used, even for such crops as coffee, cocoa and cotton, and although rich deposits of nitrates are to be found in the country, what little is used in the way of manure is imported.

It has already been pointed out that owing to the extraordinary range of altitude and temperature, almost all crops can be grown profitably in Colombia. Probably the most satisfactory plan to show the condition of affairs is to deal with the country in three zones, as already defined in the Chapter on Forests and Forest Products.

Taking, then, the tropical or warm region, we find the main crops are sugar-cane, tobacco, cocoa, bananas, coco-nut trees, rice, cotton and to a limited extent rubber.

Sugar-cane.—Four varieties are grown, known locally as paipa, Colonial, peluda and morada. The first named

gives the best results, and appears to be identical with the kind more widely known as Singapore cane. It is grown largely on the rich valley lands of Cauca, El Valle, Cundinamarca, Antioquia and the flat regions of the Atlantic. It grows without fertiliser, with very little cultivation beyond occasional hoeing of the land, and will yield for some eighty years, giving crops of over 80 tons of cane per acre in good localities, and an average of well over 40 tons. In Antioquia, which is not the department of largest output, the crop amounts to well over 22,000,000 lb. of cane. At one time there was a large export of sugar from Colombia, but although the acreage under crop has increased, now the product hardly suffices for local needs. Yet, though in the main a crop of the tropical zone, it will flourish and is fairly widely cultivated up to 7,000 feet. The cane juice is usually worked in small primitive mills, but there is a large modern establishment at Cartagena and another in the Cauca vallev.

The greater part of the juice is made into panela, a brown maple-like sugar, which forms a staple food among the peasantry and travellers. It is palatable and nourishing. Next in importance is the preparation of fermented beverages, such as aguardiente, chicha, guarapo, etc. Finally, refined sugar is made for table use and for the numerous chocolate factories. Given adequate labour, there ought to be a great future for sugar grain.

Tobacco.—Tobacco of excellent quality, some said to be equal to the best Havana, is largely grown, though mostly for local consumption. Germany, however, is a large and increasing customer for Colombian tobacco.

The chief centres for these crops are Bolivar, the Mag dalena and Cauca valleys. Up to 1909 the sale of tobacco in the Republic was reserved as a Government monopoly, but this is no longer so. The cultivation and export of tobacco are now free.

COCOA.—Cacao theobroma grows wild in the forests (in damp lowlands), the indigenous plants yielding moderate crops of small beans, containing a heavy percentage of fat. It is met with in the wild state covering thousands of acres, and rising to about 45 ft. high. However, the gathering of wild cocoa beans has not been found profitable. It is susceptible to cultivation, and then gives good results. The varieties generally planted are the cajizo or cacao morado, with a bean as large as a Jordan almond; the verdoso, or white, with a larger bean; the bicolor, and the cimaron. It is planted under bananas for early protection, with guamo colorado, cambulo and cumulo for permanent shade. While the climate is admirably suited to this cultivation, and the cocoa enjoys a very good reputation in the market, little more than enough for local demands (which are great) is grown. The chief centres of cultivation are Tolima, Cauca, Huila and Antioquia.

PLANTAINS AND BANANAS.—Over certainly more than half of the inhabited districts the fruit of plantains form the principal article of food among the masses. Plantains are, therefore, grown on quite a large scale in the low-lying, damp and hot sea borders and in the tropical valleys, but plantations extend well through the temperate zone. It is, however, in the hot damp regions that the most prolific crops are secured. The plants

require very little cultivation, beyond occasional removal of weeds. When the crown of fruit is ready for consumption, the plant is cut down, fresh stems shoot up from the suckers to bear fruit and in their turn to be cut down. In this way good stools will last for many years. The crops are heavy, and the fruit are eaten green or ripe. The Atlantic and Pacific coasts, the lower Magdalena valley and Antioquia are among the largest centres of this crop. With regard to the banana, this industry is a matter of recent growth, and is largely due to the action of the United Fruit Company. Export of bananas from Colombia has risen from 1,295,228 bunches in 1905-6 to over 6,000,000 bunches in 1911-12. Bananas thrive best in a hot damp atmosphere, and rich, light, moist soil, at an altitude of not more than 1,500 meters. About 350 trees are planted per acre; the land requires irrigation and periodical clearing from weeds. Within two years a paying crop may be cut. The industry has been brought to its highest pitch in the district of Santa Marta, where close on 40,000 acres are under cultivation, and about 100,000 more acres available. The plantations are here well laid out, with irrigation canals, often short lines of rails leading to the Santa Marta Railway, managers' houses and labourers' quarters. There is also considerable cultivation of the banana in the Magdalena valley and years ago the Hamburgin Bolivar. Some four Colombian Bananen Aktien-Gesellschaft, connected with the Hamburg-American Steamship line, obtained a grant from the Government of 12.000 acres on the Gulf of Uraba in order to develop the banana industry. About a third

of this area is now under cultivation. The company binds itself to the construction of a pier and wharf—Puerto Cesar, and a railway, with telegraph, telephones and wireless station. All bananas are to be free of export duty and taxation, while much of the material required for establishing and developing the estate is to be imported duty free. This shows the importance attached to the industry by the Government, and the liberal views they take of their duties in assisting capitalists. Hitherto rather more than half of the exports have gone to the United States and the balance to the United Kingdom.

COCO-NUT PALMS.—Most of the large coco-nut palm plantations are found on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. The exports are chiefly to the United States and to Germany, but there is a considerable use of fibres, and also of oil for soap and candle making, locally.

RICE grows freely, without much attention, wherever rich, hot irrigated land is available. Both Patna and Carolina varieties are sown. In a few places cultivation is carried on under scientific conditions and gives very good returns.

COTTON.—An excellent cotton, derived from Egyptian seed, is grown mostly in Antioquia and on the Atlantic coast. The qualities grown on the slope of the Orinoco are unrivalled for the length of the fibre. So far comparatively little attention has been given to this crop, although it does not entail much trouble and is in good local demand, to supply the native spinning mills. On the other hand, locusts have been the greatest obstacle to the development of cotton cultivation.

AGAVE AMERICANA.—The agave is chiefly cultivated as a hedge, but it merits closer attention, as even at present the local demand for hennequen fibre is insufficiently met by local supply. Manioc, or Yuca, is also a plant grown largely on the coast and certain hot valley zones, to yield flour for the peasant and labouring classes.

In the temperate zone, the principal crops are coffee, ground nuts, cereals, beans.

COFFEE.—This is the most important of all crops, as there is an immense demand for it both for export and for local consumption. Colombian coffee stands very high as regards quality, coming immediately after choice Arabic beans. The trees grow freely enough at altitudes between say 500 and 7,000 ft. above sea-level. They do best under temperatures ranging between 59° and 77° F. On the lower warm slopes, large, rather strong berries are grown, and here the trees require shade trees and a fair amount of attention. Higher up the berries are smaller, milder and more choice, the trees do not require shade, demand little attention, but have a comparatively short life. Most of the Colombian coffee is grown in Cundinamarca, Tolima (the Bogotá and Tolima crops being most highly valued), Antioquia, Caldas, Cauca, on the slopes of the Sierra Nevada and in Santander, Cucuta being a great centre, with its principal outlet through Venezuela. Although coffee is a difficult crop owing to the market fluctuations resulting from the Brazilian Valorization scheme, there appears to be room for considerable development in this direction, the bulk of coffee land on valley slopes being still virgin land. A fair amount of labour, however, is necessary.

CEREALS.—Wheat and maize are the leading cereals of the temperate zone. Maize is grown in most parts of the country, and wheat gives good crops, especially in Cundinamarca, Boyaca, Cauca and Santander, up to about 7,000 ft. Both grains, however, could be more extensively cultivated, as the yields are good. So far local demands are not satisfied.

GROUND NUTS.—These are grown between 5,000 and 6,000 ft. altitude, mainly as a cheap food for the people, though some oil is extracted for local soap works. There is ample room for extension, the yield being excellent.

In the cold zone, there is much fertile plateaux land, which bears some good wheat, choice barley and splendid potatoes. Partly owing to local demand, partly to difficulties of transport, the coastal population import almost all the potatoes that they require. Beans, both habas and frejoles, are also grown on a large scale in the higher regions as a staple popular food. In the neighbourhoods of towns vegetables and fruits are generally raised in abundance, the quality being good.

CATTLE.—The raising of horned cattle is carried on pretty widely over the country, but the most favourable localities are considered to be the grassy plains of the Magdalena, the flat districts in Bolivar and Atlantico, and the whole valley of the Cauca. It is held that the vast llanos of the Meta territory will one day become a huge cattle-breeding ground, but although there are already some very large ranches in that region, some with upwards of 10,000 head, it is found that the rank grass



Open and Covered Markets, Bogotá



gives poor nourishment. To some extent there is a movement to bring cattle bred on the llanos of San Martin and Casanare to fatten on the more luscious grazing grounds of the Magdalena and its affluents. Fairly good cattle are raised by the Indians of the Goajira Peninsula. For many years past the original strain of Spanish oxen have been improved by crossing with pedigree stock from England, Holland and Normandy. A considerable trade in exporting cattle to Cuba and to Panama existed for some time, but the Cuban sanitary regulations have made it impossible to continue. There is also talk of establishing packing houses on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts. Oxen are still much used for draught purposes over the few roads, over flat country and the more open forest tracks, though on roads they are being displaced by motor vehicles. In a few regions, Bolivar for instance, large flocks of sheep of English breeds are kept. Goats, both in the hot and temperate zones, are numerous, being bred for their flesh and milk, and also for their skins.

Colombian horses are usually Andalusians crossed with Arab and English. They are hardy beasts, much appreciated in the adjoining countries. A specially sturdy type is bred by the Indians of Goajira. For local purposes, however, mules are preferred, as they are more sure-footed in the mountains and can carry heavier burdens as pack animals. They are rather small, but admirably suited for the country. Some of the largest and best kinds are bred on the llanos of the north of Tolima. Donkeys are also bred to a great extent.

As regards the possibilities of early developments of the cattle trade, Mr. Milne, already cited, states: "In the Department of Bolivar on the Atlantic coast conditions are economically favourable," and adds: "In view of the constant reclamation of grazing areas for agricultural purposes in the United States and other countries, the land suitable for cattle breeding around the Carribbean sea will probably be developed in the next decade." To this area may be safely added considerable tracks along the Atrato and the Cauca.

It must be borne in mind that while old cattle land in the United States is rapidly being brought under the plough, the American meat packers find it necessary to compete with England in the Argentine meat market in order to supply the demand of their own people, which considerably exceeds supply.

Land Settlement.—This chapter would not be complete without saying a few words about the opportunities existing for taking up public land for agricultural and grazing purposes. A colonist may select a plot and by cultivating and fencing secure a title to it, as well as to an adjoining plot of equal size, merely for the trouble of surveying it, petitioning the proper authorities and paying certain moderate fees. A large number of Antioquians and Tolimese have become colonists in this way, overflowing into other departments, both near and far. The mulattoes of the Choco also provide a number of good agricultural colonists, especially in the hot regions.

The Law and Decree relating to the taking up of public lands will be found in the Appendices.

Number of Persons Engaged in Agriculture and Cattle-Breeding

			Agri-	Cattle-
			culture.	breeding.
Antioquia			 117,375	2,201
Atlantico			 14,915	300
Bolivar			 37,278	5,240
Boyocá			 84,326	4,006
Caldas			 63,733	1,091
Cauca			 43,009	213
Cundinam	arca		 97,777	848
El Valle			 23,094	1,263
Huila			 23,856	368
Nariño			 49,816	406
Norte de	Santan	der	 31,813	367
Santander			 55,002	424
Tolima			 47,031	3.754
Choco			 26,459	430
Goajira			 285	14,563
Meta			 1,516	95

No statistics are available for Magdalena.

CHAPTER XIII

MINING AND MINERALS

Although Colombia is wondrously rich in all kinds of minerals, at the present time it is gold and platinum, together with emeralds, that are chiefly exploited. Formerly the extraction and export of silver reached a high level as to quantity and value, but since the fall in price, the mining of this metal, apart from its association with gold, has been neglected.

In spite of the vast amount of gold sent out of the country since the Spanish conquest, it still remains one of the richest gold districts in the world. The metal either in quartz veins or in alluviums is found scattered in almost every corner of the Republic, and in a great many places the exploitations, both of quartz veins and of placers, is carried out on a thoroughly scientific plan, though in others the most primitive methods prevail. This is especially true as regards the washing of the river gravels and sands; consequently it is impossible to secure accurate figures of the country's gold production, much of the gold-dust winnings going unrecorded.

Silver is found native, as galena and as argentiferous blendes. It is also associated with gold and tin.

Platinum was discovered as early as 1737, but it was not until nearly a hundred years later that its extraction became possible, and the metal assumed importance. Colombian platinum is much purer than the Russian metal,

the ores containing from 80 to 85 per cent. It is found in placer mines, in grains associated with iridium, osmium, paladium, rodium and ruthenium, as well as with gold. Platinum was formerly a Government monopoly.

Good iron is found pretty widely distributed, the ores most generally worked being compact limonite.

Copper is abundant, and is found native, distributed in veins as grains, and also in blocks, often weighing several pounds. It is constantly associated with gold.

Tin is found in primitive rock formations, usually associated with quartz, felspar, tourmaline, mica, etc.

Several valuable deposits of manganese have been located.

Lead, though abundant in rich deposits, is little worked owing to the lowness of price.

Mercury, and sulphate of mercury, are found in many districts, and are worked to a considerable extent.

Zinc, antimony, and arsenic also exist, though they are not worked, but emery receives some attention.

Sulphur is extracted in considerable quantities both from old and existing volcanic regions.

Nitre, in Santander, alum in Santander and Norte de Santander, nitrate of soda in the Valle Dupar, are plentiful but much neglected.

Rock salt forms an important branch of industry, and is to some extent a Government monopoly. Some of the salt mines, at Zipaquira and Nemocón, are well equipped. Salt is also evaporated from saline springs, and on the Atlantic from sea water.

Coal is found in many parts of the country, and is of good quality, an average sample giving 55 per cent.

of pure carbon, 39 per cent. volatile matter, with 5,740 calories. So far coal has only been mined in small quantities for local consumption. But with better transport facilities it should replace wood as a fuel on steamers and locomotives. The rich beds in the Western Cordillera, especially those near the Atlantic coast, and those stretching from the Cauca valley to the Pacific slope, offer splendid opportunities for development, having regard to manufacturing and shipping needs.

Asphalte of excellent quality, containing over 99.50 per cent. of bitumen, is quarried and used largely for the manufacture of paint and varnishes.

Petroleum is known to exist in many districts, but very little has been done to exploit the deposits, in spite of the fact that Colombia imports large quantities of oil.

Colombia possesses a rich assortment of precious stones. At one time the Jesuits were reputed to have worked a diamond mine at Tena, province of Tequendama, Department of Cundinamarca. But when this diamond mine was examined by Percira Gamba it turned out to be a zirconium mine. It is difficult to say whether the Petits Péres could not, at the time, differentiate between the two, or if the whole thing was a legend. In the sands of the Platayaco river, in the Caqueta territory, fine Orient rubies and water-borne sapphires are found; while in the Mayo river, an affluent of the Patia, rubies, sapphires and other varieties of corundium are found, but of too pale a colour to be of any value. Garnets, amethysts, carnelians are widely distributed. Deposits of jasper, onyx, agate and rock crystal are worked to a small extent, and amber is said to be found near Bucarammanga.

Of all these, however, little of interest to commerce can be said as compared to the emeralds. Colombia supplies the world with the greatest share as well as purest and most highly prized of emeralds. The chief mines are in Boyaca, the Muzo, Coscuez and Somondoco being Government property, though long worked by an English company. Now, however, the Government has resumed direct control, having purchased the lease and other rights of the shareholders. The first named mine is extensive and well equipped. Emeralds were declared a monopoly to this extent: all stones had to be sold through the Government agency, so as to adjust supply to demand. According to the law 219, 1907 (Articles 5 and 6), the Government exacts 10 per cent. on the gross produce of every bill of sale of emeralds exploited by private persons, and has the right to exercise the necessary inspection to ascertain the exact amount of such sales.

We may now briefly review the various departments in connection with their mineral wealth.

Antioquia has always been one of the leading mining districts, and still maintains its position, both as regards quartz and placer deposits. From official sources it appears that since 1739 no less than 12,728 mining claims have been made good, mostly in connection with gold. For 1911 it was estimated that gold and silver was exported to the value of about 350,000 dollars gold per month. While some twenty or more rivers are classed as having rich gold alluviums, it is chiefly the sands and gravels of the Cauca, Nechi, Pato and Porce that are worked on a big scale. On the Pato the ores are dealt with by the Pato Mines (Colombia) Ltd., an offshoot of

the Oroville Dredging Company of California, which is a British concern. It has erected a large dam on the river and is proceeding by dredging. The bench gravel is very deep here. At Caceres the Breitung Mine Corporation is also going in for dredging. Elsewhere primitive washing methods are the rule, though on the Nechi, Porce and Cauca some French and American firms are working with hydraulic monitors. Quartz mines are numerous, but the most noteworthy are at, or in neighbourhood of, Amalfi, Remedios and Titiribi. Of late years houses connected with the Rand mining industry have been turning their attention to this part of Colombia, but there is still an immense percentage of the auriferous ground left untouched, and as this section is fairly accessible, and steadily becoming more so, the chances of success are many. Silver plays a big part at Zancudo, Titiribi. Coal and iron are mined in a few places, the iron being smelted and worked up into rails, mills and similar articles. There are rich coal deposits on the Gulf of Darien.

Atlantico is merely interesting from the fact that petroleum indications are fairly marked about Barranquilla, though only one serious attempt at sinking wells, apparently without great results, having been made at Corregimiento.

Bolivar has ten gold mines in operation. Good coal is found near the river Sinu. There are also indications of petroleum about Cartagena.

Boyaca is highly mineralised, though little developed. Licences have been issued for eleven gold, twelve silver, ten copper, three quicksilver, and 157 emerald mines. It is in this department that the celebrated government emerald mines of Muzo are found. Several small asphalte mines are worked; and the salt springs of Chita, Muneque, Chameza, Pajarito, Rector, Mongua, Pauto, Chaquipay, and Pizarra are exploited.

Caldas is another active mining centre. Since the creation of the department 2,610 mines were denounced and 855 licensed. Probably the richest of the gold mines are at Marmato and Supia. With very few exceptions the rivers are richly auriferous.

Cauca is also a gold and silver district. From 1895 to 1912, 4,106 gold mines were denounced. The many rivers are rich in gold-bearing sands and gravel, with some platinum. The mining centres are Patia, Timbiqui and Buenos Aires. There are abundant indications of coal.

Cundinamarca is a close rival of Antioquia as a mineral district, so far as variety is concerned, though developments have not been great. Iron has been largely exploited in the Provinces of Facatativa and Zipaquira in connection with the excellent coal deposits of Bogotá, Facatativa, Zipaquira and Tequendama. There appear to be great possibilities in this direction. Recently gold and silver mines have been surveyed in Zipaquira. Copper, lead, as well as asphalt rock crystal and jasper are found in most of the provinces. Salt, however, stands pre-eminent as the mineral wealth of this department, the principal seats of the industry being at the mines of Zipaquira, Nemocón, Zesquile and Tausa, with saline springs of minor importance at Gacheta, Cumaral and Upin. The production of the first named

amounted to 460,896 dollars gold in 1911. This output nearly suffices for local needs, so the other mines and springs are worked intermittently. Salt mining and evaporation is a Government monopoly, though in minor exploitations often farmed out.

El Valle is a highly mineralised pocket between the Central and western Cordilleras. From 1910 to 1912, 644 mines were denounced and 236 licensed. Of these 446 were gold, 165 gold and silver, thirty platinum, and one each of copper, emery and talc. An iron mine is worked in the region of Cali in connection with coal winning, and there are abundant indications of coal and rock crystal in other sections of the department. The coal beds near Cali apparently run right through to the Pacific slope, and are estimated to be of immense value.

Huila possesses four considerable quartz mines in active exploitation, while the rich gold alluviums of the Magdalena, Yaguara, Bache, and Aipe are washed in primitive fashion, but with fair yields.

Magdalena is well worthy of close study from the mineralogical point of view, as it presents many interesting possibilities. Coal was quite early found on the south-eastern slope of the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta, near Serrejon, and is known to be plentiful in the Goajira Peninsula. The slopes of the Eastern Cordillera also would seem to be worth exploring, and several of the tributary streams have gold bearing sands and gravels.

Nariño, besides being a gold bearing country, is one of the probable chief future sources of platinum. From 1904 to 1912 no less than 2,452 gold mines were denounced, though of these only six of the quartz mines

are exploited in a large way in accordance with modern practice. But it is considered that the whole of the western part of this district is auriferous; certainly the rivers are rich in gold dust. In the Barbacoas country, between Ecuador and the river Micay, the gold is associated with a very small percentage of platinum, but it is considered that richer deposits of the latter metal may ultimately be discovered. Coal is also found here. So far the extractions of metals in this department is almost entirely in the hands of Colombians, very little foreign capital being engaged in the industry.

Norte de Santander presents two distinct sections. On the eastern slopes of the Cordillera, in the provinces of Cucuta are rich deposits of gold, silver, copper, iron and coal, with good indications of petroleum. On the western slope, in the province of Ocaña, copper, lead and coal are found. These coal measures are likely to be valuable only so far as local needs are concerned.

Santander, according to official statistics, has in operation sixty-three gold and silver quartz mines, two gold placer exploitations, eight copper mines, ten asphalte and one of talc. There are several foreign mining companies at work in the province of Bucaramanga.

Tolima is receiving steadily increasing notice from the mining aspect, the number of claims denounced and licensed showing a progressive development. There are at present over sixty gold and silver quartz and placer claims being worked. The gold bearing veins are decidedly patchy, and show a tendency to peter out at no great depth. Among the leading concerns, there is the North Tolima Mining Company, an English firm

The rivers Saldaña, Atá, Cucuana, Luisa and Coello are gold bearing.

As regards the Intendencias and Comisarias little is known outside of El Choco. It is in this territory that the chief centre of the platinum industry is found, the most important placers being on the Condoto and Platina rivers, though the precious metal is also washed on the Agua Clara, Andagueda, Bebará, Certeguí, Iró, Negua, Tamaná and several others. The washing operations are quite primitive, and almost entirely in the hands of negroes and mulattoes. Gold washing is of secondary importance, though inseparable from washing for platinum.

Mr. Bodiam, formerly British Vice-Consul at Medellin, made the following useful official report on the climate, labour conditions and means of access to the mining districts of Antioquia and certain parts of the valley of Cauca.

Remedios and Segovia.—The climate is healthy, provided one lives in a moderately careful manner. Labour is cheap and plentiful. A steamer leaves Barranquilla, up the Rivers Cauca and Nechi, for Saragoza (the port for both places) once every month. Thence there is a good road—part cart and part mule—to destination.

AMALFI, YOLOMBO, SANTO DOMINGO, SAN ROQUE.—All healthy climates. Labour is plentiful. The communication is by steamer from Barranquilla to Puerto Berrio; thence by train to rail head (Estación Sofia) and thence over good mule

roads to the towns named.

Santa Rosa and Yarumal.—Climate is good in both places. Labour is plentiful. The way to Santa Rosa is by steamer from Barranquilla to Puerto Berrio, thence by train to Estación Sofia, thence by good mule road to Yarumito, and thence over fair mule roads to Santa Rosa. A passenger would need between four and five days on mule back to reach

Santa Rosa from the rail head. For Yarumal a steamer must be taken at Barranquilla up the River Cauca as far as Valdivia and thence over a passable mule road for two or three days to destination.

CACERES.—Climate is malarial. Labour is cheap and fairly plentiful. Communication is by steamer from Barranquilla up the Rivers Cauca and Nechi to Saragoza and thence on mule for two to three days over poor roads to the mining district.

TITIRIBI.—Climate is healthy. Labour cheap and plentiful. Communication is by steamer from Barranquilla to Puerto Berrio, thence by rail to Estación Sofia and thence to Titiribi viâ Medellin over good roads—part mule and part cart.

ANORI, ZEA, RIVERS PORCE AND NECHI.—Anori has a healthy climate, while Zea and the Rivers Porce and Nechi are malarial. Communication is by steamer from Barranquilla up the Rivers Cauca and Nechi to Saragoza, and thence over poor mule roads to destination.

ANDES.—Climate is healthy. Labour plentiful. Communication by steamer from Barranquilla to Puerto Berrio, thence by rail to Estación Sofia, thence over good mule roads viâ Medellin to destination. In all, about five to six days on mule back.

Sonson.—Climate very healthy. Labour is cheap and plentiful. The communication is by steamer from Barranquilla to Puerto Triunfo, which is a little above Puerto Berrio, thence over a bad mule road of about 65 miles to Sonson. I am given to understand that the road is being repaired. An alternative route is by steamer to Puerto Berrio and thence to Medellin, from which place there is a good mule road to Sonson. The distance from Medellin to Sonson is about 60 miles, or two to two-and-a-half days on mule back.

Manizales.—Climate is healthy. Labour plentiful. Communication by steamer from Barranquilla to Honda and thence over good mule roads to Manizales.

CARAMANTA, VALPARAISO, MARMATO, SUPIA, RIO SUCIO.—Caramanta, Marmato and Rio Sucio are healthy places, whilst Valparaiso and Supia are malarial. Labour is plentiful in the whole district. The communication is by steamer

from Barranquilla to Puerto Berrio, thence by rail to Estación Sofia, thence by good mule roads to the different towns mentioned.

The terms good and bad, as applied to roads, are, of course, relative, for in these mountainous regions a reasonably safe mule track is generally all that can be hoped for.

TIMBERS USED IN MINING.—The following timbers, which are usually abundant, are generally used for mining purposes.

	B.W. in	Lbs. Sp. Gr.
Aguatillo (Laurus Carbonis)	43	51 0.43
Amarillo de Peña (Persea)	59	0.66
Arenillo (Laurinea)	58	50 0.52
Chicala (Tecoma Spectabilis)	88	89 0.91
Dinde (Maclura Tinctoria)	94	19 0.69
Gualanday (Jacaranda Gualanda)	y) 39	97 0.53
Guayacan (Leguminosa)	76	33 1.30
Mario (Calophyllum Mariae)	6	10 0.68
Zenascuro (Carola Augusta)	49	99 0.46

MINING LAWS .- The mining laws of Colombia are quite liberal, though there is some reason to complain of the delays involved before securing ratification of surveys and titles. In some matters the Government reserves special rights, as in the monopolies of emeralds and salt, the inheritance of the old Spanish crown mines and districts. Any one may denounce a mine, and after surveying and receiving a ratification and licence, for which quite small fees are charged, the minerals can be worked, subject to moderate annual dues. Under certain circumstances it is possible to denounce mines not only on public lands, but on private property. But according to a law passed in 1913, oil wells discovered on lands belonging to the State, whether waste lands or otherwise, are not transferred by the adjudication of such lands to private individuals or Corporations, but remain

the property of the State. And mines on land belonging to Educational or Charitable Institutions cannot be denounced without the sanction of the owners. In any case facilities are always granted for access to the claims, and, moreover, the claimant is granted preferential rights to the adjudication of adjoining plots of public lands required for the exploitation of the mine. Two drawbacks to the liberality of these laws rather impede mining developments in the country. When once a denounced mine has been surveyed and the fees paid, it becomes the property of the licensee, whether it be worked or not, and the first successful claimant has prior claims as to water-rights. The result of this is that many people take up mining claims purely with speculative intentions, paying the small fees and taxes while awaiting an opportune moment to sell their claims. In this way much valuable mineralised land is held up, owing to the excessive demands of persons unable or unwilling to work the claims themselves. There are no hampering restrictions as regards foreigners.

A few of the more recent enactments by Congress or Executive Decree are set out here in tabular form.

LAW 21 OF 1907

Authorises the Government to assume the exclusive right to export platinum, palladium, irridium, rhodium, osmium and ruthenium, as well as all radio-active minerals, to issue new rules for the exploitation of these metals, and to offer rewards for the discovery of new deposits.

Authorises change in the tax on emerald mines. above, under paragraph on emerald mining.

Declares that copper may be denounced like the previous metals; landowners being allowed one year to make good their mining rights in accordance with the general laws;

and fixes the royalties payable at half those payable on previous metals.

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к	OX	721	tri	es	

For denouncing a gold or silver mine		\$0.50
Grant deed ,, ,, ,,		\$4.00
Annual royalty for rock mine for each 52	sq.	
kilometres (20.072 sq. miles)		\$1.00
Annual royalty for alluvial mine		\$1.00

By paying in one sum twice the amount that according to law 21 of 1867 should be paid for 20 years, the owner can acquire the property of the mine in a permanent form. No contract for exploitation of mines of coal, asphalt, petroleum, or gas, entered into with the Government is valid unless sanctioned by Congress.

Law 72 of 1910

Declares that the platinum mines can be denounced.

No grants to be made in Choco until the laws are reformed.

The Platinum mines in actual exploitation can be granted only to the actual owners.

Law 75 of 1913

The Government reserves the right to petroleum wells in the lands granted to settlers and in all lands belonging to the State.

EXPORT OF GOLD FROM 1905 TO 1912

Year.	Description.	Kilos. Gs.	Value in Gold Dollars.	Totals.
			\$	\$
1905	In bars	2,723 500	1,046,515	
	In dust	2,601 038	570,420	1,616,935
1906	In bars	5,650 -	2,186,539	_
	In dust	1,378 854	518,926	2,705,465
1907	In bars	5,106 573	2,136,284	
	In dust	1,749 041	741,457	2,877,741
1908	In bars	6,860 555	2,856,293	_
	In dust	2,224 608	980,581	3,836,874

EXPORT OF GOLD FROM 1905 TO 1912—continued

Year.	Description,	Kilos. Gs.	Value in Gold Dollars.	Totals.
			\$	\$
1909	In bars	5,459 360	2,140,912	
	In dust	1,941 645	847,798	2,988,710
1910	In bars	6,190 700	2,293,568	
	In dust	2,498 013	1,076,384	3,369,952
1911	In bars	7,680 427	2,454,834	
	In dust	2,891 294	1,296,999	3,751,833
1912	In bars and dust	19,642 372	6,634,913	6,634,913

The export of platinum, which was valued at £35,119 in 1907, sank to £20,844 in 1908, and rose to over £118,839 in 1912.

CHAPTER XIV

MANUFACTURES AND MINOR INDUSTRIES PRESENT DEVELOPMENTS AND FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

In Colombia high import duties are the rule, and these are designed to be protective as well as revenue producing. In the past, as at the present day, it has been the custom of the Government to foster local industries by very material concessions. Sometimes this has taken the form of a guaranteed interest on capital involved both in equipping and establishing factories. often exclusive rights to manufacture in specified districts for definite periods, together with exemption from central and local taxation, freedom from import duties on machinery and raw material required has been the rule. Occasionally money and land grants have been made. Quite commonly when such concessions have been made the manufacturers are in their turn bound to sell their goods at prices ranging from 5 to 15 per cent. lower than the prices charged for imported goods of a similar character, it being estimated that the concessions granted give a preference of from 10 to 25 per cent. and upwards over imported articles. We may take the boot factories of Cartagena and Barranquilla as examples. These are fitted with machinery from America, and supplied with choice leathers and other raw material from England, the United States and Germany, free of import duties. Their boots sell at an average of 2.75 dollars gold for men's, and 2.50 for ladies', retail. While

the duties on imported boots are 80 cents gold per kilogramme gross weight, plus 70 per cent. and 2 per cent. on the specific duty. Often valuable Government contracts are also awarded to local manufacturers. Apart from this official fostering of native industries, it will be found that many of the larger business firms (frequently acting not only as importing and exporting agents, but also as bankers) either run or otherwise finance industrial enterprises. Thus it is frequently the case that many coffee growers are merely tenants, or are financed by bill discounting by big coffee collecting and exporting firms. The same conditions prevail in the "Panama" hat industry, and to a lesser extent in that of sugar growing and refining.

Owing to its influence on home and foreign commerce the textile industry is probably the most important in all the manufacturing class. Spinning and weaving are very ancient indigenous arts, both wool and hair, as well as some vegetable fibres, having been used by the Indians long prior to the Spanish conquest. But it was not until 1790 that a priest, Don Cristobal de Restrepo, introduced the spinning and weaving of cotton among the Antioquians. Apparently the industry persisted in a small way, although almost dormant. At the present day textile factories for cotton and wool of considerable importance are run at Barranquilla, Bogotá, Cartagena, Medellin, and Samaca. At Barranquilla the Obregon cotton mill contains over 200 electrically driven British looms, worked by women and boys. Imported British grey and coloured yarns are used, and worked up into grey domestics and coarse coloured drills, about 10,000

yards being finished per day. It is proposed to start in conjunction with this a mill to spin native cotton. In the same town there is a stocking net factory, run with German capital and machinery, the yarns (grey, bleached and coloured) being imported from England, Germany or the United States, as periodical quotations may render advisable. The twenty-four netting machines, worked by electricity and attended by women, turn out 150 dozen under vests, 150 men's drawers and 250 pairs of stocking monthly. They sell at about 60 per cent. less than imported goods.

At Cartagena a large spinning and weaving steam driven mill is owned by the Banco Union, and has been run for about a quarter of a century. Native cotton is spun here, the seed being exported. Coarse yarns, for grey drilling, are spun, but a certain amount is imported. There are 105 looms, attended by 160 women and boys. It appears that imported sheeting, paying 20 cents gold per kilogramme, plus 70 per cent. surtax and 2 per cent. on the specific duty, competes severely with the local drills. There is a stocking net factory, with thirty-two machines, at Cartagena, using unbleached and coloured United States yarns.

In Bogotá there are several large and well equipped mills, some both spinning and weaving, for the production of cotton and woollen materials of a cheap quality, chiefly intended for the working classes. Among the leading firms are the Fabrica Nacional de Tejidos, turning out black and coloured woollens, and the Sagrada Familia cotton and wool spinning and weaving mills.

At Medellin the largest spinning and weaving mills

A Cotton Store



belong to the Compañia Antioquena (established in 1905), which are worked by hydraulic power of 300 h.p. There are 189 spinning machines with 5,328 spindles and 290 looms; some 110 men and 400 women turning out over 8,000 yards of cottons and woollens per day. The Colombiena, established three years later, also spins and weaves. There are several other smaller establishments.

At Samaca (Boyaca) the Gran Fabrica de Hilados y Tejidos spins cotton and wool, and has about 100 looms, employing some 400 hands to turn out grey domestics and drills, native cotton being used.

Spinning of wool is very general, and cottage looms are found all over the country.

It is difficult to obtain any reliable data as regards the use of vegetable fibres. But the making of sacks, hammocks and shoes, chiefly from hennequen (agave) fibre, is well developed so wide apart as in Santander, Tolima and Nariño. On the other hand, much of the sacking used for sugar and coffee in the Atlantic ports is imported from England, usually being of Indian jute.

An extensive and growing industry is that of the manufacture of "Panama" straw hats, which are made from fine palm straw. Among the centres of this industry may be mentioned Atlantico, Bolivar, Caldas, El Valle, Huila, Tolima and Nariño. In 1912 the exports of these came to about 120,000 lb. weight, of a declared value of well over £80,000. But it must be remembered that the hats are extensively used locally. Of the better quality, or "Sombreros de Suazus," some 161,000 lb., valued at £151,363 were exported.

There is a considerable export trade in hides. Tanning is also carried on locally, in a small way as a rule, but on a large scale in Antioquia. Only sole and coarse leather is usually turned out, for boot making and a little harness work. Finer leather is imported; and most of the saddles and harness sets are made of agave fibre.

There is a tanning factory at Cartagena, turning out tanning extract, and a special secret brand, "Guara," produced from red mangrove bark, growing abundantly wild in the neighbourhood. It is used locally, and also exported to England and Germany. Both leather and tanning offer considerable scope for enterprise, more especially as the breeding of cattle is bound to increase enormously in the near future.

Of recent years a growing percentage of the vegetable ivory (tagua nut), collected in the forests, has been worked up in small local factories into buttons and kindred objects.

Tobacco, of local growth, is very widely manufactured, factories for the production of cigars and cigarettes existing in a great many towns up and down the country. This branch of manufacture assumes important proportions in the Cauca valley, and also in Tolima, in which department Ambalema is the principal centre of the industry, about 120,030 cigars being turned out there weekly. The former export trade in tobacco and cigars was large, but is now almost entirely confined to Germany, which country, however, is steadily increasing its orders.

Cement is now being produced on a fairly big scale, the two leading factories being found in the Department of Cundinamarca. One of these is devoted mainly to the manufacture of tiles and slabs for paving, cisterns and water conduits, and the other to the production of cement in powder and in blocks for building purposes. This has already had a marked effect in reducing the demand for imported cement.

In connection with the food industries, nearly every town of any importance has several mineral water factories. Good aërating and refrigerating machinery is in steady demand. Breweries, generally producing ales of the lager type, flourish in several districts. Sugar calls forth various classes of factories, from refineries to distilleries. The machinery used is often of primitive type and local manufacture, but a few well-equipped establishments are met with. Besides the manufacture of fermented beverages from the sugar juice, there is a large and growing export of alcohol, about 40° strength, much of it going to England. Chocolate factories, some quite large and expensively equipped, are commonly met with in most large towns, and all seem to prosper. The demand for sweets of all kinds is large.

Milling is, speaking generally, still in a primitive condition, but is bound to develop without much delay, for conditions are extremely favourable. At Barranquilla there are two flour mills, one at Cartagena, one at Medellin, three at Bogotá and one at Tunja. These are all well equipped. There is a heavy import duty on flour, and also, in some cases an internal, or departmental tax. The import duty is 8 cents gold per kilogramme gross weight, plus 70 per cent. surtax and 2 per cent. on the specific duty. The inter-departmental tax between Atlantico and Antioquia is 8 dollars gold

per 250 lb., and between Atlantico and Cundinamarca 16 dollars. At Barranquilla and Cartagena wheat on an average costs 1.45 dollars gold per bushel of 60 lb., plus a duty of about 1 cent per 2 lb. Flour sells at 18 dollars gold per 280 lbs., and the bran fetching locally a dollar gold for 100lb., and equally good prices in Trinidad, where most of it goes, pays the running expenses. It is extremely probable that in the interior profits are not so large. But it must be remembered that in many places, especially on the Pacific coast, flour has to be imported, in spite of the high duty.

Coco-nut palms and ground nuts are almost entirely neglected from the industrial point of view, though both products supply some of the fats required by the soap and candle factories existing in most of the large towns. For there is a big consumption of both commodities.

Commerce, both as regards imports and exports, is largely in the hands of merchants at the seaports, with agents in the interior, who act as commission agents, as well as direct shippers. It has, however, been found profitable for firms to open branches, or appoint direct agents after personal interviews. Circularising is of little value, and ordinary commercial travelling hardly more so. At Barranquilla import and export trade is mainly in the hands of German firms, though other foreigners have a share. At Cartagena, Colombians share the trade with a few Syrian firms. At Bogotá it is again the Colombian element that prevails, with a few English, American and other foreign houses. At Medellin the native element also prevails, both manufacturers and merchants being active and wealthy.

At Manizales, Ibagué and Bucaramanga, we again have Colombian firms in the ascendancy. At Cali there are also Italians and Germans; and at San Jose de Cucuta Italians, German, Syrians and Venezuelans. All the above-named towns are populous, in some degree manufacturing places, and all busy centres of commerce, both for the collection and distribution of goods. Many of the native products, and this applies practically to agricultural products and cattle, are disposed of at the great periodical fairs held in the commercial centres. These are usually attended by local merchants or their representatives.

It is officially stated that all travellers' samples in small pieces of no value are admitted free of duty up to 25 kilogs. Samples of commercial value pay duty according to their classification, but may be re-exported up to 1,000 kilos. within two years from the date of importation. These must be accompanied by a consular invoice, which should be made out in the name of the traveller. If no consular invoice is produced twice the amount of the consular dues, plus 10 per cent., as a fine, will be charged. Travellers wishing to re-export samples must pay the duplicated consular dues and fine, if incurred, and give a bond to the satisfaction of the Administrator of Customs that the duties applicable will be paid, plus interest at the rate of 2 per cent. monthly in case the re-export be not effected within two years; the Customs manifest, the acceptance of the bond for the duties, must be kept by the traveller for presentation to the Administrator of the Customs in the port whence he leaves the country, in order that his samples may be

checked; when this is done, the Administrator will cancel the bond. If the samples are not re-exported within two years, or if the import duties have not been paid, the Administrator of Customs at the port of entry will collect the duty in terms of the guarantee.

As already stated, when dealing with Inland Communication and Transport, it is of the utmost importance for any shipper dealing with Colombia to pay the greatest care to packing. Small, well secured packages must be the rule. All weights and measurements must be given according to the metric system.

CHAPTER XV

IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE

As already explained in the last Chapter, the great bulk of Colombian trade passes through the hands of large firms of importers and exporters, for the most part of Colombian origin. Over 90 per cent. of the import trade is carried out on current account, that is to say, six months' credit with interest at the rate of 6 per cent. for European firms, and at three to four months' credit at the same interest for United States traders. British traders usually grant ninety days or at sight; German, French, and Spanish firms six months or at sight, and those of the United States either thirty days' drafts, or cash on delivery with discounts. Importing firms usually allow fifteen days' credit for provisions sold in the port towns, thirty days for outside districts, and for hardware sent up country from three to four months. But there are considerable variations in practice; thus Medellin merchants customarily grant their clients promissory notes payable at six, twelve, and eighteen months. Long credits are necessary in a country of such immense distances and limited means for quick and cheap transport.

Statistics as to imports and exports are very deficient, not only owing to the delay in presenting them, but the constant changes introduced into the method of tabulating the information. However, it would appear from such data as is available that for the thirty years, 1880-1909,

the imports remained practically stationary at a little under £2,500,000, and the exports at a little over £3,000,000. There was a slight drop in each case in the last year. But in 1910 the imports rose to £3,405,127 and the exports to £3,557,361; and in 1911 the imports were valued at £3,621,773, and the exports at £4,475,180.

As regards the countries of origin, taking the four leading manufacturing and commercial nations, it is found that for the years 1902-1906 the United Kingdom sent 30.84 per cent., the United States 31.60, France 23.44 and from Germany 13.98 per cent. For the years 1907-1911 the percentages were: United Kingdom 36.16, United States 27.54, France 22.28, Germany 13.88. Thus between the two periods there was a gain of 5.32 per cent. for the United Kingdom and losses of 4.06 for the United States, 1.16 for France and 0.10 Germany. While there is a gain on the total trade for British goods, it will be seen later on that ground has been lost by the United Kingdom in certain classes.

The latest complete statistics available are for the year 1911—

		I	MPORT	s		
E						£
From-						
United 1		m				1,167,757
United S	States					1,080,995
Germany	у					648,527
France						343,749
Spain			• •			79,546
Panama						6,358
Other C	ountrie	s	• •			294,838
		Total			· · ±	(3,821,760

These are the corrected figures of the Director-General of Statics, which differ slightly from those given by the British Board of Trade.

I	DETAILS	OF	IMPORTS		
Textiles—					£
United Kingdon	m				840,543
Germany					238,905
United States					217,989
France					199,558
Spain		٠.			19,729
Panama					1,388
Other Countries	S				107,014
Food-stuffs and Co	ondimen	ts-	-		
United States					275,677
Germany					108,026
United Kingdon	m				38,265
France		٠.			12,404
Panama		٠.			883
Other Countries	S				55,519
Metals—					
United States					135,925
United Kingdon	m				130,500
Germany					99,441
France					18,407
Panama					1,865
Spain					1,158
Other Countries	S				15,913
Drugs and Medicin	nes				•
United States					65,566
France					30,801
Germany					25,582
United Kingdon					27,802
Spain					271
Panama					23
Other Countries	S				8,395
Railway and othe	r Carria	ges		ons	
United States		٠.	• •		88,222
United Kingdon	m				30,221
Germany					6,162
France			• •		1,793
C!-			• •		667
Panama			• •		74
Other Countries	S		• •		12,084

Materials for Arts and	Trades-		£
United States			103,697
United Kingdom			16,995
Germany			11,279
France			2,383
Spain			279
Panama			50
Other Countries			5,908
Alcoholic and other E	Beverages—	-	
France			39,211
Spain			35,060
United Kingdom			15,846
Germany	• •		14,458
United States			8,411
Panama			97
Other Countries			12,835
Ceramics—			
Germany			34,588
United States			26,139
France			8,225
United Kingdom			7,888
Spain		• •	384
Panama			209
Other Countries			14,264
Paper and Cardboard			
United States			38,138
Germany			29,029
France			9,070
Spain			3,998
United Kingdom			3,966
Panama			191
Other Countries			6,365
Lighting and Fuel—			
United States		• •	39,314
Germany			9,488
United Kingdom			9,080
Spain			337
Fallallia			58
France	• •		2,975
Other Countries			13,035
Agriculture and Minin	g Products	·	
United Kingdom			28,686
United States	• •		26,319
Germany			3,361
France			260
Panama			. 73

Agriculture, etc.—((contd.)	_			£
Spain					11
Other Countries					5,913
Hides and Skins, a	ind ma	nufact	ures t	herefron	1
United States			***	• •	32,259
France					11,193
Germany					9,339
United Kingdom					6.823
Spain					1,635
Panama			• •	• •	38
Other Countries		• •	••	• •	803
Woods-	••	•.•	••	••	000
United States					17,553
Germany	• •	• •	• •	• •	13,990
Spain	• •	• •	• •	• •	
Spain	• •	• •	• •	• •	5,067
France	• •	• •	• •	• •	4,237
United Kingdom	l	• •	• •	• •	1,589
Panama	• •	• •	• •	• •	878
Other Countries	• •		• •	• •	1,961
Oils and Greases—					
United States					10,392
United Kingdom	١				3,334
Germany					3,321
France					1,467
Spain					315
Panama					209
Other Countries					2.324
Varnishes, Colours,		nks-	• •	• •	_,0_1
Germany					8,386
United States		• •	• •	• •	7,049
United Kingdom		• •	• •	• •	3,121
E		• •	• •	• •	1,013
	• •	• •	• •	• •	1,013
	• •	• •	• •	• •	4
Spain	• •	• •	• •	• •	-
Other Countries		• •	• •	• •	1,287
Electrical Appliance	es—				40.000
United States	• •	• •	• •	• •	10,079
Germany	• •	• •		• •	5,964
United Kingdom					2,061
France					748
Spain					2
Other Countries					1,163
Perfumery and Soa United States	ар—-				
United States					10,373
France	• •				4,265
					-,

Perfumery and Soa	ap—(co	ntd.)—			£
United Kingdom	ì				2,438
Germany					2,028
Panama					4
Other Countries					389
Rubber, Celluloid,	etc				
Germany					6,019
France					4,459
United States					3,889
United Kingdom	1				1,859
Spain					7
Other Countries					667
Musical Instrumen		•			
					4,865
Germany United States	••	• •	••		2,962
France	••	••	••		2,326
United Kingdon	1	• •	••		388
Panama		• •	• •		88
Other Countries			• •	• •	523
Tortoise-shell, Horn		• •	• •	• •	020
					4,513
Germany	• •	• •	• •	• •	4,362
France	••	• •	• •	• •	812
United Kingdom		• •	• •	• •	301
United States		• •	• •	• •	16
Panama	• •	• •	• •	• •	695
Other Countries	• •		***	• •	093
Firearms, accessori			unitioi		0.550
Germany		• •	• •	• •	3,550
United States		• •	• •	• •	2,720
Spain France	• •	• •	• •	• •	1,007
France	• •			• •	945
United Kingdon		• •		• •	880
Other Countries		• •			645
Explosives and Co	mbust	ibles			
United States					4,383
United Kingdon	า				2,147
Germany					514
Panama					421
France					18
Other Countries					201
Live Animals—					
United States					164
77					104
United Kingdon					40
Other Countries					1,128

Miscellaneous—					£
United States					13,478
France					3,407
Germany					1,733
United Kingdon					864
Spain					227
Panama					2
Other Countries					26,040
Other countries					
	E:	XPORT	s		
					2 440 700
To United States			• •	• •	2,449,799
United Kingdon	n		• •	• •	919,227
Germany			• •	• •	382,070
France			• •	• •	153,839
Spain			• •	• •	23,931
Panama			• •	• •	8,598
Other Countries	3		• •	• •	537,718
					1. 155 100
	Total	• •	• •	· · £	(4,475,182
Т) ביר א דד פ	OF F	EXPORT	S	
Live Animals	EIAILS	5 Or 1	J251 Q161.	3	£
Panama					1,696
United States			• •		911
United States United Kingdo					219
Other Countrie		• •	• •		15.743
Animal Products	chiefl			• •	,
United States	(CIIICII	y 111ca			210,023
United States United Kingdo	m	• •			51,367
Germany		• • •			41,262
Spain	• •		• •		15,148
France	• •	• • •			13,527
Panama		• •			21
Other Countrie					60,734
Vegetable Produ	cts (cot		ananas.		
ber, leaf tob	acco e.	tc.)—	,		
United States	••				661,711
United Kingdo					422,515
Germany					305,287
France	• •				24,981
Spain	• • •				8,729
Panama					3,019
Other Countrie					448,817

	£
Manufactured Goods (chiefly straw hats)—	
United States 1	75,436
United Kingdom	54,618
Germany	25,825
Panama	3,776
France	17
Other Countries	9,818
Mineral Products—	
United States 4	01,709
United Kingdom 3	74,467
	14,866
Germany	9,145
Panama	83
Spain	54
Other Countries	1.228
Miscellaneous—	,
Germany	46
France	31
United Kingdom	16
United States	8
Other Countries	1,388

EXPORTS FOR 1912

The returns prepared by the Colombian Director-General of Statics for 1912, under a somewhat different classification to that given above is as follows—

						£
Gold						1,326,983
Platinum			•	• •		118,838
Coffee				• •		3,355,581
Hides	• •					532,344
Rubber			• •			147,285
Bananas						399,399
Palm Stra	w Ha	ts				83,585
Fine Palr	n Stra	aw F	Hats (so	mbreros	de	
suazos)			`			151,363
Tobacco l	Leaf					88,492
Tagua (Iv	ory N	uts)		• •		150,941
Timber						3,058
						£6,257,869

The exports under "Vegetable Matters" include coffee, cocoa, sugar, tobacco, bananas, "alligator" pears, pineapples and other fruits, balsams, dividivi and mangrove bark, raicilla (ipecachuana), and other medicinal herbs, palm nuts (tagua), timber and plants. The "Animal Matters" include live animals, hides, horns, goat and alligator skins, tortoise-shell, etc.

As regards Imports, the Textile Class includes a large number of items. There is an increasing demand for yarns. Those from the United Kingdom rose from £1,000 in 1903 to £84,000 in 1911. For the same years yarn imports from Germany (for the port of Barranquilla alone) £376 and £3,940; from the United States £103 and £2,007. There is a small import from France. There is a considerable and growing demand for manufactured cotton goods. In 1911 the imports from the United Kingdom were: piece goods £531,000, other goods £88,000; from the United States: piece goods £183,000, other goods £21,000; Germany: piece goods £55,000, other goods £42,000; France, all sorts: £69. Taking the period 1907-1911 it is found that Great Britain has made a gain of 25 per cent., Germany of 17 per cent., France about 1 per cent., while the United States has receded by 15 per cent. Prints are in good demand and fetch remunerative prices. While in 1909 62 per cent. of the prints came from the United Kingdom and 34 per cent. from the United States, these percentages were respectively 57 and 42 in 1911. The quick delivery from stock favours the United States manufacturers in this line. White bleached piece goods passed through the Barranquilla Custom House in 1911 to the value

of £76,900, of which about 98 per cent. came from the United Kingdom. Pieces 20 yd. long and 18 and 36 in. wide are favoured. Drills through the same port were valued at £68,100, of which 22 per cent. came from the United Kingdom, 33 from Italy, and 24 from Germany, whereas our imports in 1909 amounted to 36 per cent. of the total. We are losing ground to Italy, Germany and the United States. Unbleached goods were imported to the value of £27,300 in 1911, as against £49,600 in the previous year, a fall no doubt due to competition by local mills. In 1909 55 per cent. came from the United States and 44 per cent. from the United Kingdom; the percentages are now respectively 50 and 49, but there is a strong objection to the heavy English sizing. Of the cotton lace imported about 60 per cent. comes from Great Britain and about 80 per cent. of the "Unclassified Cotton Manufacturies." The linen imports are small and diminishing; they are chiefly from Great Britain, but made-up linen clothing from France.

Woollen yarns are imported to a small extent, chiefly from the United Kingdom. Woollen fabrics were imported through Barranquilla to the value of £50,900 in 1909, £96,500 in 1910 and £70,000 in 1911. The percentages for the three years were respectively: United Kingdom, 26, 27 and 19; France, 39, 37, 37; Germany, 24, 24, 25; Italy, 7, 6, and 11. Red flannel and white blankets are mostly of British make; but black and coloured checked woollen shawls came chiefly from France and Germany.

Of wearing apparel, France sends over 50 per cent.,

Germany being the next largest exporter, while great Britain only sends 12 per cent.

The empty sack trade is a big one, the value averaging about £21,000 annually, the demand being for packing coffee, salt, tagua and divi-divi, etc. These mostly come from Calcutta and Dundee. There is a considerable local competition from the makers of "henequen" and "fique" (agave) fibre, and the United States has also improved its position from about £1,000 in 1909 to £4,000 in 1911.

In machinery the United States holds the lead. The imports in 1910 were £50,000 from the United States, £44,000 from the United Kingdom, £14,000 from Germany and £6,000 from France. In 1911 the respective totals were £151,000, £49,000, £12,000 and £7,000.

Of agricultural machinery, the United States supply the small demand for ploughs (£1,700); the United Kingdom for hoes (£3,300); and of the £95,000 worth of machetes imported through Barranquilla, Germany supplied nearly 60 per cent., and Great Britain 27 per cent. The mining shovels come from Great Britain; the picks from the United States, Great Britain and Germany. Textile machinery is mostly of British make; printing machinery comes from the United States. Of implements and tools the United Kingdom supplied £14,000 in 1909 and £17,000 in 1911; the United States £17,000 and £19,000; and Germany £7,000 and £11,000. Germany supplies most of the cutlery and the enamelled ironware. Barbed wire was imported through Barranquilla to the amount of £13,000, mostly from the United States.

Practically the whole of the trade in electrical goods

and apparatus is in the hands of United States and German manufacturers, this including telegraphic and telephonic material, although the Bogotán telephone system is run by an English company. There are undoubtedly enormous possibilities in the country for the development of hydro-electric schemes, both for municipal and industrial purposes.

Another branch of trade well worth careful attention and fostering is the horseless vehicle business. In most of the big towns, and wherever a few miles of passable high roads exist, the automobile is gaining in favour, both for private use and as means for public, passenger and goods, conveyance. As the policy of recent governments, and of the departmental administrations, is to promote the construction of roads and bridges, this appreciation of automotive cars and wagons is bound to grow. It is, therefore, to be noted that so far the second class, low-priced cars of the United States are preferred to the better built but more expensive British vehicles, the reason being that purchasers prefer to run their cars for a few seasons, then dispose of them and procure newer models.

The leather manufactured goods trade is also deserving of attention. According to the Colombian official statistics as given above the imports of "hides and skins and manufactures therefrom" in 1911 was £62,900, but the figures given by the British Board of Trade on the authority of the Barranquilla Custom House for "leather and leather manufactures" are £59,000 in 1909, £69,000 in 1910 and £85,000 in 1911. Of this last named sum, £6,000 only went to the United Kingdom, £41,000

to the United States, £28,000 to France and £10,000 to Germany. It appears that the chief sources of supply are: for leather belting, the United States; harness, the United States, France and the United Kingdom; boots, France; fancy goods, France and Germany. Saddlery is almost entirely of local manufacture. There is an appreciation of good leather articles, but the market cannot afford to pay high prices.

There is a genuine demand for strong, tasteful binding (both leather and cloth) at medium prices.

In estimating the possible value of the Colombian market, it must be remembered that at the present rate of imports the people, on the latest census basis, only spend a little over 15s. a head on foreign goods. It is almost certain that a closer study of the local needs as regards prices, terms, and styles would sensibly augment this *per capita* expenditure in the near future. But the Colombian market is one whose idiosyncrasies particularly demand sympathetic consideration.

CHAPTER XVI

LIST OF IMPORTANT TOWNS

Α

ABEJORRAL, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 45′ N. lat.; founded in 1811; pop. 17,500. Centre of an agricultural district. Salt mines in the neighbourhood.

ACANDI, cap. of the Uraba Comisaria.

AGUADAS, prov. of Salamina, dep. of Caldas, 5° 35′ N. lat.; 7,255 ft. above sea-level; pop. 26,400. A leading centre for the production of "Panama" straw hats.

AIPE, prov. of Neiva, dep. of Huila, 3° 22′ N. lat.; 1,214 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,600. Cattle and agricultural centre. Many remarkable rocks with hierophyphic inscriptions are found here.

ALMAGUER, prov. of Caldas, dep. of Cauca, 1° 54′ N. lat.; 7,434 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,900. Agricultural and mining centre.

AMAGĀ, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 56′ N. lat.; 4,517 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,700. Agricultural and mining centre. In addition to rich gold mines there are coal mines and an important foundry.

AMALFI, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 45′ N. lat.; founded in 1840; pop. 10,400. Situated on a plain, surrounded by forests. Enjoys a pleasant climate. Is the centre of an agricultural and important gold-mining district.

AMAIME, prov. of Ibagué, dep. of Tolima; pop. 4,000. Ten gold and silver mines in operation.

ANAPOIMA, prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 32′ N. lat.; 2,246 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,550. Situated in the bed of an ancient lake. Thermal springs. Copper mines.

ANDES, dep. of Antioquia, on the San Juan river; pop. 18,400. Is situated amid fertile fields. A cattle-breeding centre. Also rich gold and salt mines.

ANGOSTURA, dep. of Antioquia, 6 °45′ N. lat.; 5,313 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,200. First regular Congress of the Republic held here.

ANOLAIMA, prov. of Facatativa, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 32′ N. lat.; 4,650 ft. above sea-level; pop. 14,400. Agricultural and mining centre. Large sugar-cane plantations; lead mine; rich deposits of limestone.

ANSERMA, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas, 5° 12′ N. lat.; 5,877 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,000. Coffee-growing district.

ANTIOQUIA, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 24′ N. lat.; about 1,800 feet above sea-level, on the R. Tonusco; pop. 10,000. This picturesque old city was founded by Robledo in 1541, and was long the chief town of that district. Possesses cathedral, episcopal palace, public schools, hospital, etc. In an agricultural district. Connected with Medellin by a road, with good bridge over the Cauca river.

APIA, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas; 5,374 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,100. Coffee and tobacco-growing district.

ARANZAZU, prov. of Salanima, dep. of Caldas; 5° 26′ N. lat.; 5,765 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,100. Coffeegrowing district.

ARAUCA, cap. of Comisaria of Arauca, 6° 32′ N. lat.; 640 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name; pop. 3,000. Cattle-raising and agricultural district. Sugar, rice, maize, cocoa, plantains, etc.

ARBELAEZ, prov. of Sumapaz, dep. of Cundinamarca; pop. 5,900. Agricultural district.

ARBOLEDAS, prov. of Cucuta, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 27′ N. lat.; 2,994 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,700. Coffee and cocoa.

ARJONA, prov. of Cartagena, dep. of Bolivar, 10° 16′ N. 11—(2248)

lat.; 344 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,200. Agricultural and cattle-breeding centre.

ARMENIA, prov. of Pereira, dep. of Caldas; 5,515 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,700; coffee and tobacco cultivation. There is another town of Armenia in Antioquia; pop. 5,878.

ASPACIA, prov. of Ocaña, dep. of Norte de Santander, 8° N. lat.; 5,242 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,300. Gold mining.

В

BANCO, cap. of prov. of Banco, dep. of Magdalena, 8° 52′ N. lat., a port on the R. Magdalena, at its juncture with the Cesar. Commercial and agricultural centre; pop. 5,200.

BARANOA, prov. of Sabanalarga, dep. of Atlantico, 10° 47′ N. lat.; pop. 5,324. Cotton-weaving mills in the town. Cotton and yuca extensively grown in the neighbourhood.

BARBACOAS, cap. prov. of Barbacoas, dep. of Nariño, 1° 54′ N. lat., at the confluence of the Guagui and Telembi rivers, about 100 m. from the Pacific coast; pop. 7,800. Founded in 1607 as Nuestra Senora del Puerto de Nuevo Toledo de Barbacoas. Formerly a rich alluvial mining district, though now the gold production has fallen off. A trace of platinum is found with the gold.

BARBOSA, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 22′ N. lat.; about 4,247 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,000. Founded in 1792. Is the centre of a cattle-breeding and mining district. Rich gold and salt mines; also lime quarries. Several important sugar mills are situated here.

BARICHARA, prov. of Zapatoca, dep. of Santander, 6° 24′ N. lat.; 4,332 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,300. Chiefly occupied with manufacture of straw hats and cigars. Principal crops: tobacco, cotton, and agave (henequen).

BARRANQUILLA, cap. of the dep. of Atlantico, 10° 29′ N. lat., on the R. Magdalena (at about 55 miles from its mouth), of which it is the chief port, as well as of the Republic; pop. 48,900. The climate is hot and damp. Barranquilla is connected with Puerto Colombia by railway. Founded in 1629, it

had a chequered career, being overshadowed by Cartagena, until the early part of the nineteenth century, when its commercial importance began to make itself felt. It is a busy, well-built city, possessing a large covered market, hospital, theatre, five churches, and two banks. Two of the largest flour mills in the country are found here; there are also sugar, chocolate, soap, important textile and other factories. The town is lit by electricity. There are electric tramways, telephone service, and good water supply. Barranquilla is the headquarters of steamer traffic on the Magdalena, Cauca, Nechi, and other rivers. The chief Custom House of the Republic is found here.

BAUDO, Choco Territory, 5° 10′ N. lat.; pop. 7,000. Centre of alluvial gold industry.

BELÉN, cap. of prov. of Tundama, dep. of Boyaca, 5° 52′ N. lat.; 8,860 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,164. Cattle-breeding centre.

Another town of Belén is in the prov. of Tundama, dep. of

Caldas; pop. 5,960.

BELTRĀN, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 46′ N. lat.; 755 ft. above sea-level; pop. 1,968. Agricultural centre; on the La Dorada Railway.

BITUIMA, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 51′ N. lat.; 3,756 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,950. Agricultural and mining centre.

BOAVITA, prov. del Norte, dep. of Boyaca, 6° N. lat.; 6,936 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,000. Agricultural centre. Produces sugar-cane, dates and an odoriferous resin (storax). There are here sugar refineries and fruit-preserving factories.

BOCHALEMA, prov. of Cucuta, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 26′ N. lat.; 3,362 ft. above sea-level, in a small valley near the R. Pamplonita; pop. 4,300. Coffee plantations. Curious Indian tombs, with mummies, found here.

BOGOTÁ, cap. of the Republic, of the dep. of Cundinamarca and the prov. of Bogotá, situated in 4° 35′ N. lat., at 8,679 ft. above sea-level, in the midst of rolling plains on a high plateau

surrounded by great mountains. It was founded on the site of an Indian town by Belalcazar in 1558, and has always been of great importance. The city is well laid out, with spacious, but not over well-paved streets, open squares, public gardens, imposing public buildings, and large numbers of fine private residences and business premises. Served by several railways, it has an excellent network of municipal tramways, is lit by electricity, possesses two of the best theatres on the Continent (the Teatro Colon and the Teatro Municipal), large bull ring, hippodrome, polo club grounds, and many other conveniences. In this city, too, will be found the Capitol (home of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies). the President's Palace, ministerial offices, university, many high schools, public, secondary and elementary schools, public library and museum, cathedral and a great many churches and old conventual establishments. Bogotá, besides being the political centre of the country, is also a busy mart where much of the imports for distribution as well as goods for exports are gathered. It is also a manufacturing town, textile (cotton and wool), pottery, glass, sulphuric acid, soap and candles, cigars, chocolate, beer and other liquors being produced; there are as well flour mills, tanneries, and brick and tile works. There are four banks, the Banco de Colombia, Banco de Bogotá, Banco Central and the Banco Hipotecario, and an influential insurance company, the Compania General de Seguros, with a capital of two million dollars gold.

BOLIVAR, cap. of prov. of Caldas, dep. of Cauca, 1° 49′ N. lat.; 5,512 ft. above sea-level; pop. 17,738. Picturesquely situated town, founded in 1749. Agricultural and mineral district.

BOLIVAR, prov. of Vélez, dep. of Santander, 5° 21' N. lat.; 6,435 ft. above sea-level; pop. 12,410. Agricultural centre. Close by are unworked emerald strata.

A third town of this name is in the dep. of Antioquia, pop. 9,500; and a fourth in the prov. of Roldanillo, dep. of El

Valle, pop. 4,600.

BOYACA, prov. Centro, dep. of Boyaca, 5° 27' N. lat.; 8,637 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of a small river of the same name; pop. 6,600. This is the site of the victory which

Bolivar won over the Royal Spanish troops in 1819. An obelisk has been erected to commemorate the event. An agricultural centre.

BUCARAMANGA, cap. of prov. of Bucaramanga and dep. of Santander, 6° 50′ N. lat.; 3,036 ft. above sea-level; pop. 19,700. Founded in 1778. Has wide streets and many conveniences, such as electric light, theatre, hospital, public gardens, etc. Is situated in the midst of fertile coffee, cocoa, cotton, and tobacco plantations. It is one of the chief coffee markets of the country. Possesses factories turning out straw hats, textiles, cigars, beer, etc. Its gold mines are no longer worked.

BUENAVENTURA, cap. of prov. of Buenaventura, dep. of El Valle, 3° 53′ N. lat., situated on the island of Cascajal; pop. 6,500. Principal Colombian Pacific port, and head of the Pacific-Cali Railway. Custom House and submarine cable station. Important market town, and port of entry for the whole Cauca Valley.

BUGA, cap. prov. of Buga, dep. of El Valle, 3° 55′ N. lat.; 3,285 ft. above sea-level, on banks of river of the same name, close to the R. Cauca; pop. 11,600. Founded in 1575 by Alvaro de Mendoza as Guadalajara, subsequently known as Nueva Galicia. An important agricultural centre.

C

CACERES, dep. of Antioquia, 7° 30′ N. lat.; 652 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,500. Coal seams. Extensive gold dredging operations carried on here.

CALAMAR, prov. of Cartagena, dep. of Bolivar, 10° 17′ N. lat., on the banks of the Magdalena; pop. 6,349. The river terminus of the Cartagena Railway, which gives it its only importance.

CALAMAR, cap. of the Comisaria de Vaupés, on the R. Unilla, just S. of the Equator. Floating pop. of about 500. Centre for the collection of the caucho negro, or forest rubber.

CALARCA, prov. of Pereira, dep. of Caldas; 5,512 ft.

above sea-level; pop. 13,200. Agricultural and mining centre.

CALDAS, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 58' N. lat.; 5,300 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,700. Possesses glass and pottery factories and foundries.

Also Caldas, prov. of Occidente, dep. of Boyacá, pop. 5,000; and Caldas, prov. of Ambalema, dep. of Tolima, pop. 5,600.

CALI, the capital of the prov. of Cali and the dep. of El Valle, is situated in 3° 5′ N. lat., on the R. Cali, at 3,420 ft. above sea-level, enjoys an average temperature of 25° C., and has a population of 27,500. It was founded in 1535. Much of the old town remains, but it is a thoroughly progressive place, with steam tramways, electric light and a number of large factories. There is a handsome cathedral, numerous other churches, a hospital, schools, theatre and public gardens. There are large furniture, soap and candle factories, foundries, etc. It collects and exports gold, coffee, cocoa, rubber and other local produce. In the immediate neighbourhood are vast deposits of excellent coal, so far unworked. River steamer communication with Cartago.

CALOTO, capital of the prov. of Camilo Torres, dep. of Cauca, 2° 46′ N. lat.; 3,320 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,578. Founded in 1543. Agricultural and mining centre.

CAMPOALEGRE, prov. of Neiva, dep. of Huila, 2° 57′ N. lat; over 1,800 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,250. Situated in a fertile plain. Fruit, cattle, etc. Alluvial gold deposits worked.

CANDELARIA, prov. of Palmira, dep. of El Valle, 3° 25′ N. lat.; 3,152 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,900. Agricultural centre, producing maize, bananas, sugar-cane and cocoa.

CAPARRAPI, prov. of Guadas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° 16′ N. lat.; over 4,300 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,417. Agricultural centre.

CAPILLA DE COCUY, prov. of Gutierrez, dep. of Boyaca, 5°N. lat.; 9,192 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,700. Agricultural centre.

CAQUEZA, cap. of the prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 25′ N. lat.; 5,785 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,000. Commercial and agricultural centre. Half-way halting stage between the Sabana of Bogotá and the llanos of the Meta. Is a centre for the manufacture of textile and other articles from henequen fibre.

CARAMANTA, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 28' N. lat.; 6,893 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,000. Gold and silver mining.

CARMEN (EL), dep. of Antioquia, 5° N. lat.; 6,916 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,312. Agricultural centre. Commerce in salt from springs, timber and pottery.

CARMEN, cap. of the prov. of El Carmen, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 44′ N. lat.; 492 ft. above sea-level; pop. 16,300. Situated on a fertile plain, celebrated for the excellence of its tobacco crops.

Álso Carmen, prov. of Atrato, district of Chocó, pop. 2,300; Carmen, prov. of Ocaña, dep. of Norte de Santander, pop. 8,200; and Carmen de Agricalá, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of

Tolima, pop. 2,700.

CARMEN DE CARUPA, prov. of Ubaté, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5 deg. 14' N. lat.; 9,745 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,238. Coal mines. Centre of fertile agricultural district.

CARTAGENA, cap. of the dep. of Bolivar, 10° 25' N. lat.; situated on an island in Cartagena bay; pop. 36,632. This ancient city, founded in 1533 by Pedro de Heredia, was for long one of the most important settlements in Spanish South America. Strongly fortified, it became the emporium of that great exchange of wealth between the New and the Old World, and consequently attracted various covetous persons. Captured and sacked by French pirates in 1544, forty-two years later it fell to Francis Drake, who carried off vast wealth in gold, silver and precious stones, besides exacting a ransom of 113,000 dollars; attacked in 1620 by united bands of English and French pirates, a successful defence was made; but in 1697 a strong French force captured the town, the conquerors singing the Te Deum Laudamus in the cathedral, and carrying off over seven million dollars worth of treasure. Finally came the unfortunate enterprise of Admiral Vernon

and General Wentworth in 1741, which suffered unqualified defeat. For its resistance to foreign foes and rebels, the Spanish kings bestowed on it a coat of arms and the title of "Most Noble and Loyal." In spite of this it declared for independence in 1811. Four years later it suffered siege by land and water, falling after heroic efforts to the Royalist army when the leaders of the Republican party were put to death; a large ransom exacted and the office of Holy Inquisition re-established. But as the result of the victory of Boyaca in 1819, the Spanish governor capitulated eighteen months later. Cartagena still retains much of its old world appearance, with its stout ramparts and bastions, its splendid cathedral, archiepiscopal palace, viceroy's ancient palace and other buildings, vying with its modern edifices, which includes the National Treasury, hospitals, and a fine theatre. The University is installed in the old convent of San Augustin; there are numerous educational establishments besides, among which is the National Normal School for Teachers. While the streets of Cartagena itself are rather narrow, though well paved, the pleasant residential suburbs of Jetyemani, Pie de la Popa and Cabrero have wide streets, with charming villas hidden among palms and other tropical vegetation. Although Barranquilla has done much to take away the commercial leadership, Cartagena still retains an influential position in the business world. It has textile (spinning and weaving), sugar, chocolate, soap, straw hat, boot, tanning and other factories, large flour mills, petroleum refinery, and other works. Cartagena is lit by electricity, has a good tramway service, and is linked up with the Magdalena by a canal, the Dique, and a railway. The latter runs from the spacious wharves and warehouses, on the shores of the magnificent harbour, to the fluvial port of Calamar. Commercially Cartagena is not only important as an entrepôt for overseas traffic (about 35 per cent. of the imports pass through its Custom House), but also as the main trading centre for the dep. of Bolivar and the whole of the Atrato valley.

CARTAGO, cap. of prov. of Cartago, dep. of El Valle, 4° 45′ N. lat., near the Rio Vieja. It was originally founded in 1540 on the R. Otun, but soon after transferred to its present site; pop. 18,600. An agricultural centre, producing

cocoa, coffee, tobacco, etc. Busy commercial community. Steamer communication between Cartago and Cali.

CERETE, prov. of Sinu, dep. of Bolivar, 8° 47′ N. lat.; 82 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,000. A commercial centre.

CERRITO, prov. of Buga, dep. of El Valle, 3° 43′ N. lat.; 3,063 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name; pop. 6,300. An agricultural centre.

CHARALA, cap. of prov. of Charala, dep. of Santander, 6° N. lat.; 4,751 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,900. Agriculture (sugar-cane, maize, etc.); cattle-breeding; manufacture of blankets; tanneries.

CHIA, prov. of Bogotá, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 50′ N. lat.; 8,567 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,430. Agricultural centre.

CHINACOTA, prov. of Cucuta, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 23′ N. lat.; 6,320 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,100. Important agricultural centre. Coffee, cocoa, etc.

CHINU, cap. of prov. of Chinú, dep. of Bolivar, 9° N. lat.; pop. 12,000. Founded in 1534 by Pedro de Heredia, on site of an ancient Indian town. Is in midst of fertile plains, on which extensive herds of cattle are bred.

CHIPAQUE, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 26′ N. lat.; 7,905 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,500. Agricultural centre.

CHIQUINQUIRA, cap. of the prov. Occidente, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 32′ N. lat.; 8,500 ft. above sea-level; pop. 14,500. Founded in 1586. Possesses fine church, colleges, hospital, and other public buildings. Some manufacturing is carried on here. The town is on a plain, whose rich pasturages carry large flocks of sheep.

CHIRIGUANA, prov. of Valledupar, dep. of Magdalena, 9° 10′ N. lat.; pop. 6,500. An agricultural centre, near the R. Cesar. Well known for the excellence of its cattle and cocoa.

CHISCAS, prov. of Gutiérrez, dep. of Boyacá, 6° 42' N. lat.;

7,813 ft. above sea-level, situated on a plain near the Sierra Navada del Cocuy; pop. 6,600. Agricultural centre.

CHITA, prov. of Gutierrez, dep. of Boyacá, 6° N. lat.; pop. 9,100. Ancient Indian settlement. Important agricultural centre. Saline thermal springs in neighbourhood, which are exploited.

CHOACHI, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° 32′ N. lat.; 6,182 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,100. Thermal spring bathing station. Fruit and cereals produced on a large scale.

CHOCONTA, cap. prov. of Choconta, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 8,732 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,900. Built on site of old Chibchas fortified town, at extremity of the sabana of Bogotà. Inhabitants chiefly occupied in sadlers' and harness makers' industry. In neighbourhood are unworked rich deposits of iron, asphalt, etc. Also thermal springs.

CIÉNAGA, prov. of Santa Marta, dep. of Magdalena, 11° N. lat. Situated on a plain on the Atlantic coast at the foot of the Sierra Navada de Santa Marta; pop. 14,610. Shipping and agricultural centre. Many of its inhabitants are engaged in the coasting trade. Cocoa, cotton, and tobacco, but chiefly bananas are grown. A little gold and good marble. Cienaga was formerly known as San Juan de Cordoba.

Also Ciénaga, prov. of Marquez, dep. of Boyacá, pop. 4,700.

CIÉNAGA DE ORO, prov. of Sinu, dep. of Bolivar, on the Martinez, a tributary of the Sinu; pop. 9,500. Centre of agriculture and alluvial gold mining.

CIRCASIA, prov. of Pereira, dep. of Caldas; pop. 6,100. Agricultural centre.

COCUY, cap. of the prov. of Gutiérrez, dep. of Boyacá, 6° 16' N. lat.; 9,050 ft. above sea-level, at the foot of the Sierra del Cocuy; pop. 7,870. Agricultural and mining centre. Much wheat, oats, and maize grown. Gold and silver abundant.

COELLO, prov. of Ibagué, dep. of Tolima, 4° 16' N. lat.; 1,090 ft. above sea-level, near the rivers of the same name

and of the Magdalena; pop. 4,825. Silver mines, gold alluviums and thermal springs.

COLEGIO. See El Colegio.

CONCEPCIÓN, prov. of Malaga, dep. of Santander, 6° 35' N. lat.; 6,427 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,100. Agricultural Thermal springs.

Also Concepción, dep. of Antioquia, pop. 3,300; and Concepción, prov. of Gorzou, dep. of Huila, pop. 3,500.

CONVENCIÓN, prov. of Ocaña, dep. of Norte de Santander, 8° 12' N. lat.; 3,252 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,200. Agricultural centre.

COROZAL, cap. of prov. of Corozal, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 27' N. lat.; 510 ft. above sea; pop. 10,900. Centre of extensive cattle-breeding district. Produces textiles and much appreciated cotton embroideries.

CUCUTA (San Jose de Cucuta), cap. of prov. of Cucuta and of dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 38' N. lat.; 1,052 ft. above sea-level; pop. 20,400. The town lies within ten miles of the Venezuelan frontier, and is connected by railway with the R. Zulia, which flows into Lake Maracaibo, and so into the Atlantic. It was destroyed by an earthquake in 1875, and has been rebuilt with wide tree-bordered streets and fine houses. It is lighted by electricity and served by a tramway and the telephone. Among the public buildings are a theatre, casino, hospital, many churches and schools. There are two public parks. Local industries are carried on vigorously, but the chief business of the place is to act as a gathering and distributing centre for the agricultural and other products of the district. Cucuta coffee has an excellent reputation. Seat of a Custom house.

CUCUTILLA, prov. of Pamplona, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 21' N. lat.; 4,342 feet above sea-level; pop. 6,600. Agricultural centre.

CUMBAL, prov. of Ipiales, dep. of Nariño, 0° 49' N. lat.; 12,297 ft. above sea-level, at the foot of the volcano of the same name; pop. 7,400. Agricultural centre.

D

DAGUA, prov. of Cali, dep. of El Valle, on the river of that name; pop. 6,300. Agricultural centre. Alluvial gold.

DUITAMA, prov. of Tundama, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 47′ N. lat.; 8,239 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,915. Celebrated for its orchards, and its manufacture of esparto matting.

E

EL COLEGIO, prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 33′ N. lat.; 3,972 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,350. Agricultural centre.

EL PENON, prov. of Zipaquira, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 4,563 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,600. Agricultural centre.

F

FACATATIVA, cap. of the prov. of Facatativa and of the dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 45′ N. lat.; 8,634 ft. above sealevel; pop. 10,534. On site of an old Chibchas stronghold, on the eastern confines of the sabana of Bogotá at the confluence of two small rivers. Busy commercial centre, with wide streets, well-built public edifices and factories. Is connected with the Bogotá by rail and tramways, and is an entrepôt for mineral and agricultural produce and also for imported manufactured goods. Thermal springs and curious inscribed rocks in the neighbourhood.

FIRAVITOBA, prov. of Sugumuxi, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 34′ N. lat.; 8,435 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,550. Agricultural centre.

FLORENCIA, cap. of Caqueta Comisaria.

FOMEQUE, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 30′ N. lat.; 6,467 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,900. Agricultural centre.

FREDONIA, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 50′ N. lat.; about 6,060 ft. above sea-level; pop. 18,200. Important agricultural centre, much coffee grown. Fine outcroppings of coal seen here.

FRONTINO, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 32′ N. lat.; about 5,100 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,587. Busy agricultural and commercial centre. Large coffee and sugar plantations. The neighbouring forests produce vegetable ivory, rubber, and cabinet woods. Rich gold mines.

FUSAGASUGA, cap. of the prov. of Sampaz, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 21′ N. lat.; 5,818 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,500. Great coffee plantation centre.

G

GACHALA, prov. of Guavio, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 44′ N. lat.; 5,742 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,920. Agricultural district.

GACHETA, cap. prov. Guavio, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 47′ N. lat.; 5,643 ft. above sea-level; pop. 12,500. Sulphur and salt mines; also thermal springs. Centre of a rich agricultural and cattle-raising district.

GARAGOA, prov. of Niera, dep. of Boyacá, 5° N. lat.; 5,200 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,200. Agricultural centre, the chief crops being sugar-cane, bananas, aniseed.

GARZON, cap. prov. of Garzon, dep. of Huila, 2° 50′ N. lat.; 2,692 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,800. A bishopric. The town is built on site of an ancient lake, amidst extensive cocoa plantations and wide pastures, which carry a heavy head of cattle. Possesses asphalt mines.

GIGANTE, prov. of Garzon, dep. of Huila, 2° 40′ N. lat.; 2,660 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,800. Town derives its name from the discovery here by the Spanish conquerors of quantities of fossil bones of huge animals. Gold placer mines.

GIRARDOT, cap. of prov. of Girardot, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 16′ N. lat.; 1,083 ft. above sea-level; pop.10,400. On the banks of the Magdalena. Of great importance as the terminus of the Girardot-Bogotá railway. A lengthy suspension bridge at the Paso de Flandes gives direct communication between Bogotá and Ibagué.

GIRARDOTA, Antioquia, 6° 16′ N. lat.; 4,599 ft. above sea-level. Founded in 1702; pop. 8,100.

GIRON, prov. of Bucaramanga, dep. of Santander, 6° 47′ N. lat.; 1,849 ft. above sea-level on the banks of the Rio de Oro; pop. 6,200. Chief interests: straw hat manufacture, cattle-breeding, tobacco-growing.

GUACA, prov. of San Andres, dep. of Santander, 6° 44′ N. lat.; over 8,400 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,100. Commercial and agricultural centre. Esteemed for its woollen fabrics, known as "ruanas."

GUCARI, prov. of Buga, dep. of El Valle, 3° 45′ N. lat.; 3,217 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,500. Agricultural and cattle-raising centre.

GUACHETA, prov. of Ubaté, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° 18′ N. lat.; 8,874 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,300. Occupies the site of an old and wealthy Indian town; copper mines.

GUADUAS, cap. of the prov. of Guadas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 3,368 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,700. Busy and wealthy little town, situated in a pleasant, healthy valley. Agricultural and mining centre. Coffee, sugar-cane, tobacco, cotton, and indigo grow well. Palm straw hats manufactured. Coal and asphalte mines. Thermal springs.

GUAITARILLA, prov. of Tuquerres, dep. of Nariño, 1° N. lat.; 8,755 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,000. Agricultural centre.

GUASCA, prov. of Guatavita, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 49′ N. lat.; 8,710 ft. above sea level, near the lake of the same name; pop. 5,760. Site of the old Indian town. Coal mines. Thermal springs.

GUATAVITA, cap. prov. of Guatavita, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 51′ N. lat.; 8,522 ft. above sea-level. Site of an old Indian town, sacked by Quesada. Extensive production of woollen fabrics. Coal mines.

GUATEQUE, cap. of prov. del Oriente, dep. of Boyaca 5° N. lat.; 5,989 ft. above sea-level. Situated in the Tenza

valley; pop. 7,000. Founded 1671. Agricultural and mining centre. Gold, silver, and copper.

GUAYATA, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Boyaca, 4° 59′ N. lat.; 5,657 ft. above sea-level, near the R. Macheta; pop. 8,150. Important agricultural centre.

H

HATO, prov. of La Plata, dep. of Huila, 2° 25′ N. lat.; 2,685 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,300. Agricultural district. Also Hato, prov. of Zapatoca, dep. of Santander; pop. 2,000.

HONDA, cap. of prov. of Honda, dep. of Tolima, 5° 11′ N. lat.; 689 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,600. Busy port and mart on the Magdalena, terminus of the lower fluvial navigation. Station on the La Dorada-Ambalema Railway.

I

IBAGUÉ, cap. of the prov. of Ibagué and the dep. of Tolima, 4° 27′ N. lat.; 4,266 ft. above sea-level, in the valley of the Combeima, a tributary of the R. Coello; pop. 24,700. Founded in 1551. A pleasant, well-planned town, enjoying an excellent climate, owing to the cool mountain breezes. It is an active commercial centre, for the valleys of the Cauca and Magdalena; exporting coffee, cocoa, sugar, straw hats, hides, rubber, tobacco and vegetable ivory. There are gold, silver and sulphur mines, and thermal springs in the neighbourhood. The cattle trade is developed on quite a big scale.

IPIALES, cap. prov. of Ipiales, dep. of Nariño, 0° 46' N. lat.; 10,123 ft. above sea-level, near the R. Male; pop. 14,600. Industrial and commercial centre, having considerable dealings with Ecuador. Is the seat of a Custom house. Chief industries: cabinet work and tanning.

ISCUANDE, prov. of Nuñez, dep. of Nariño, 2° 31′ N. lat.; pop. 7,300. Situated amidst marshes. Sugar-cane, rice, cocoa, bananas, and rice grown in large quantities.

ISTMINA (or SAN PABLO), district of the Choco, 1° 38' N. lat., lying between the headwaters of the Atrato and San

Juan rivers; pop. 11,100. One of the chief markets for platinum, brought in from the Condoto, Iro, and other rivers.

ITUANGO, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 59' N. lat.; pop. 15,246. Agricultural centre.

JAMUNDI, prov. of Cali, dep. of El Valle, 3° 20' N. lat.; 3,365 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,250. Agricultural centre, producing maize, bananas, cocoa.

JENESANO, prov. of Marquez, dep. of Boyaca, 5° 23' N. lat.; 7,107 ft. above sea-level, on banks of river of same name; pop. 7,560. Great centre for fruit-growing and cattle-raising.

JÉRICO, dep. of Antioquia, 6° N. lat.; 6,790 ft. above sea-level; pop. 15,200. Founded in 1851, and was the capital of the old dep. of Jérico. Is a flourishing agricultural and commercial centre. Cattle-raising and coffee-planting are carried out on a large scale. The town possesses an extensive weaving mill.

JÉRICO, cap. of the prov. of Valderrama, dep. of Boyaca, 6° N. lat.; over 10,000 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,200. Agricultural centre.

Also Jérico, prov. of Villavicencio, Meta.

JESUS MARIA, prov. of Valez, dep. of Santander, 5° 46' N. lat.; 6,326 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,200. Founded in 1774. Agricultural centre.

JUNIN, prov. of Guavio, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 44' N. lat.; 5,975 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,758. Centre of agricultural district.

L

LA CRUZ, capital of prov. of La Cruz, dep. of Nariño, 1° 34′ N. lat.; 7,889 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,500.

Also La Cruz, prov. of Ocaña, dep. of Norte de Santander,

pop. 8,000.

LA MESA, cap. of prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 36' N. lat.; 4,205 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,122. Important market for cocoa, coffee, sugar, maize, salt and palm straw hats. Fertile cocoa and coffee plantations.

LA PALMA, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 4,781 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,400. Agricultural centre.

Also La Palma, prov. of Ocaña, dep. of Norte de Santander; pop. 2,800.

LA PLATA, cap. prov. of La Plata, dep. of Huila, 2° 35′ N. lat.; 3,334 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,130. Agricultural and silver-mining district.

LA UNION, cap. of the prov. of Juamambu, dep. of Nariño,

1° 33′ N. lat.; pop. 9,100.

Towns of the same name in Antioquia, pop. 2,700; prov. of Neiva, Huila, pop. 5,000; and prov. of Roldanillo, El Valle, pop. 3,200.

LA VEGA, prov. of Facatativa, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 55′ N. lat.; 3,822 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,900. Agricultural centre.

Also La Vega, prov. of Caldas, dep. of Cauca, pop. 6,600.

LORICA, cap. of prov. of Sinu, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 15' N. lat., on the R. Sinu; pop. 19,000. Busy commercial, agricultural, and mining centre. The river is navigable up to this point by fairly large steamers.

M

MAGANGUÉ, cap. of the prov. of Magangué, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 26′ N. lat., on the left bank of the Cauca, almost at its confluence with the Magdalena; pop. 13,400. A busy fluvial port, where well-attended fairs are held periodically. Possesses textile mills.

MAJAGUAL, prov. of Magangué, dep. of Bolivar, 8° 22′ N. lat.; pop. 9,700. Agricultural centre.

MALAGA, cap. of the prov. of Malaga, dep. of Santander, 6° 31′ N. lat.; 7,262 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,600.

MANIZALES, cap. of the prov. of Manizales and the dep. of Caldas, 5° N. lat., at 7,025 ft. above sea-level; pop. 34,700. Although only founded in 1846, it is an important and rapidly growing city. It is the seat of a bishop. Perched

on a rocky peak overlooking the plateaux of Ruiz, it is surrounded by a range of snowy mountains, owing its very name to the granite on which it is based. Manizales possesses wide streets, public gardens, colleges, and schools, theatres, and four banks. On the plains large herds of cattle graze, and in the immediate neighbourhood are sulphur and salt mines, and thermal sulphur and saline springs. Although distant from any river and having no railway, it is the gathering and distributing centre for much of the commerce of the surrounding departments. It is one of the leading markets for gold, sulphur, coffee, cocoa, and cattle.

MANZANARES, cap. of the prov. of Manzanares, dep. of Caldas, pop. 11,900. Important mining centre.

MARMATO, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas, 5° 5′ N. lat.; 5,121 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,100. One of the richest gold-mining districts of the Republic. The mines are State property, leased to the Colombian Mining and Exploration Company, of London.

MATANZA, prov. of Bucaramanga, dep. of Santander, 7° 40′ N. lat.; 5,269 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,700. Deposits of coal, talc and rock; crystal abundant.

MEDELLIN, cap. of the dep. of Antioquia, 6° 1' N. lat.; 4,600 ft. above sea-level, situated in a picturesque, fairly sheltered valley, enjoying an excellent climate. Founded in 1675; pop. 71,000. Its streets are wide and houses well built. It is lit by electricity, and plans have been prepared for a modern drainage system. It possesses a university, public library, schools of arts, mines and mechanics, as well as secondary and primary schools, museum, assay and chemical laboratories, mint, two banks, two theatres, a bull ring and many factories. Among these must be specified five textile factories (spinning and weaving), the largest employing 400 girls and 110 men, and having an output of 8,000 yards of cotton and woollen cloth; four foundries; an engineering shop chiefly engaged in manufacturing machinery for handling coffee and chocolate, and large tannery; four chocolate factories; four breweries; and establishments for the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, candles, and soap. Another

textile factory and one for the manufacture of paper are in the course of erection. It is of considerable commercial importance, being one of the largest collecting and distributing centres in the Republic; the chief exports are gold, silver, coffee, and hides.

MESA. See La Mesa.

MIRAFLORES, capital of Province of Neira, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 14′ N. lat.; 4,340 ft. above sea-level; pop. 19,150. Tropical crops.

MIRAFLORES, prov. of Ibagué, dep. of Tolima, 4° 14′ N. lat.; 2,627 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,438. Founded in 1778. Gold-mining and agricultural produce.

MOCOA, capital of the Comisaria of the Putumayo, 0° 56′ N. lat.; 2,094 ft. above sea-level; pop. 1,400. An old penal settlement, now a trading centre for the collection of rubber, etc.

MOGOTES, prov. of San Gil, dep. of Santander, 6° 16′ N. lat.; 5,582 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,300. Well known for its fruit preserves. Coal mines in the district.

MOLAGAVITA, prov. of San Andres, dep. of Santander, 6° 32′ N. lat.; 7,062 ft. above sea-level, on banks of the river of the same name; pop. 7,000. Coal mines.

MOMPOS, cap. of prov. of Mompos, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 14′ N. lat., on a branch of the Magdalena; pop. 14,700. Founded by Alonzo de Heredia, in 1539. A fine town, with public buildings. A commercial and manufacturing centre, with several foundries and jewellery factories. Large trade in cattle and choice tobacco.

MONIQUIRA, cap. of the prov. of Ricaurte, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 47′ N. lat.; 5,797 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the river of the same name; pop. 10,746. An agricultural centre. Fruit preserving factories are extensive. Rich copper mines in the vicinity.

MONTERIA, prov. of Sinu, dep. of Bolivar, on the Sinu; pop. 21,500. Chiefly engaged in production of illuminating oil known as "Corozo."

N

NAZARET, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas; pop. 9,400. Agricultural colony.

NEIRA, prov. of Manizales, dep. of Caldas, 5° 11′ N. lat.; 6,372 ft. above sea-level; pop. 12,500. Agricultural and cattle-raising centre. Valuable salt springs.

NEIVA, cap. of the prov. of Neiva and dep. of Huila, 3° N. lat.; 1,512 ft. above sea-level, on the right bank of the Magdalena at its confluence with the R. Neiva; pop. 21,850. The town is situated in a hot but healthy valley. Founded in 1612. Its streets are wide, bordered by fine houses. Important commercial, industrial, and agricultural centre. Much of the export and import trade is gathered and distributed here over wide regions. Possesses textile, "Panama" traw hat, fibre hammock factories, potteries, etc. Its cocoa and cattle are widely known.

NEMOCÓN, prov. of Zipaquirá, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 8,792 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,300. Founded in 1537. Great centre of the salt trade; also coal mines.

NOVITA, Choco district, 4° 36′ N. lat.; 575 ft. above sealevel, on the river of the same name; pop. 6,100. The town, founded in 1709, is built on piles. Centre of the alluvial gold and platinum trade.

NUNCHIA, cap. of the prov. of Nunchia, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 28′ N. lat.; 1,408 ft. above sea-level; pop. 2,890. Centre of tropical agricultural produce.

O

OCAÑA, cap. of the prov. of Ocaña, dep. Norte de Santander, 8° N. lat.; 3,824 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the Rio Grande; pop. 16,800. Well-built town, founded in 1576, on a sandy plain. Commercial centre; exports coffee, aniseed, hides, palm straw hats. Coal and lead deposits are found in the neighbourhood.

Р

PACHO, prov. of Zipaquira, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. at.; 6,076 ft. above sea-level; pop. 15,837. Iron and coal

mines. Formerly there was an important foundry here, but it is now closed. This district supplies Zipaquira and Bogotá with firewood. Agriculture is the chief industry.

PACORA, prov. Salamina, dep. of Caldas, 5° 30′ N. lat.; 5,475 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,300. Cattle-raising centre.

PADUA, prov. Centro, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 22′ N. lat.; 8,587 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,424.

PAIPA, prov. of Tundama, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 47′ N. lat.; 8,072 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the river of the same name. Near here are the plains known as Pantano de Vergas, where Bolivar gained a victory in 1819. Agricultural centre

PALMA. See La Palma.

PALMIRA, cap. of the prov. of Palmira, dep. of El Valle, 3° 33′ N. lat.; 3,132 ft. above sea-level; pop. 24,312. Important industrial and agricultural centre. Well-equipped sugar factories. Palmira tobacco is much sought after. One of the principal tobacco markets in the Republic. A half-yearly general market held here.

PAMPLONA, cap. of the prov. of Pamplona, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 12′ N. lat.; 7,560 ft. above sea-level; pop. 14,800. Old town founded in 1549, but has suffered much from earthquakes. Was formerly a great mining depot, rich gold mines being worked in its neighbourhood, now exhausted. Coffee trade occupies most attention.

PANDI, prov. of Sumapaz, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 13′ N. lat.; 3,273 ft. above sea-level, on the Sumapaz; pop. 4,500. Agricultural centre. Is celebrated for its natural rock bridge (Puenta Icononzo), about 39 ft. long by 9 ft. wide spanning the Sumapaz at an elevation of over 250 ft. There is also a curious red-painted, inscribed rock.

PASTO, cap. of the prov. of Pasto and the dep. of Nariño, 1° 30′ N. lat.; 8,660 ft. above sea-level, situated on a small fertile plateau at the foot of the volcano of the same name; pop. 27,800. Founded in 1539. Is the seat of a bishop. Possesses wide streets, lit by electricity and fine public buildings, including a school of mines. A commercial and

manufacturing centre. Textiles (wool and cotton), felt and straw hats, and varnished wood-work produced here. The Pasto varnish, derived from the *eleagia utilis*, is widely celebrated and deserves attention.

PENON. See El Penon.

PENSILVANIA, prov. of Manzanares, dep. of Caldas; pop. 10,200. Agricultural and mining centre.

PEREIRA, cap. of the prov. of Peria, dep. of Caldas; 4,675 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the R. Otun; pop. 18,500. Agricultural centre. Chief cattle market of the department; a half-yearly fair is held here.

PESCA, prov. of Sugumuxi, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 6′ N. lat.; 8,735 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name; pop. 10,700. An ancient town of the Chibchas Indians. Large market for wool and cereals.

PIEDECUESTA, cap. of the prov. of Piedecuesta, dep. of Santander, 6° 43′ N. lat.; 3,312 ft. above sea-level, on the Rio de Oro; pop. 8,100. Manufactures: straw hats, cigars, fruit preserves. Agricultural products: fruit, cocoa, coffee, tobacco, cotton.

PLATA. See La Plata.

PITALITO, prov. of Garzon, dep. of Huila, 2° 10′ N. lat.; 4,445 ft. above sea-level; pop. 12,550. Prosperous agricultural district.

POPAYAN, cap. of the prov. of Popayán and of the dep. of the Cauca, 2° 26′ N. lat.; 5,900 ft. above sea-level; pop. 18,725. Was founded in 1536 by Belalcazar on a great tableland, at the foot of the extinct volcano Sotara (15,892 ft.), and some 17 m. from the active volcano Puracé (16,103 ft.). It enjoys an equably cool spring climate, but is subject to violent electrical storms and earthquakes. It played a leading part in the old Spanish and early revolutionary days, and still possesses many remarkable buildings, but its commercial importance is on the decline. The Government and departmental offices, the University of Cauca, the chief schools all occupy fine old convents. There are, including the cathedral,

ten churches. Besides the large covered market-place, there are two banks, schools, hospital, theatres, a bull ring, and very beautiful gardens. The municipality has built two handsome bridges and short lengths of good roads in the immediate neighbourhood of the town. Woollen fabrics are produced for local consumption.

PUEBLOVIEJO, prov. of Sugumuxi, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 24' N. lat.; pop. 9,000. Agricultural centre.

PUEBLOVIEJO, prov. of Santa Marta, dep. of Magdalena, 10° 59′ N. lat.; 404 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,400. Agricultural centre.

PUENTE NACIONAL, prov. of Valez, dep. of Santander, 5° 46′ N. lat.; 5,279 ft. above sea-level, on the R. Suarez; pop. 11,900. Agricultural and coal and iron-mining centre.

PUERTO BERRIO, dep. of Antioquia; 6° N. lat., on the Magdalena; pop. 4,500. Important fluvial port, 500 m. from Barranquilla, and head of the Medellin Railway.

PUERTO COLOMBIA, dep. of Atlantico, 10° 59′ N. lat., at a short distance from the mouth of the Magdalena; pop. 2,500. It is the seaport of Barranquilla, some 50 m. higher up the river, with which it is connected by railway. It possesses a long pier for sea-going steamers, extensive quays and warehouses. Also known as Savanilla, from the old settlement, now a suburb of the port.

PUERTO WILCHES, prov. of Bucaramanga, dep. of Santander, port on the Magdalena and head of the Puerto Wilches Railway; pop. 2,600.

PUPIALES, prov. of Ipiales, dep. of Nariño, 0° 55' N. lat.; 10,012 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,000. Built on the site of an Indian town; curious ruins still to be seen. Agricultural centre.

Q

QUIBDO, cap. of the Intendencia del Choco, 5° 37′ N. lat.; 138 ft. above sea-level; pop. 15,750. A busy trading centre, where European goods are exchanged for gold dust, rubber, vegetable ivory, and other forest products. But the chief

industry of the whole district is the working of the platinum and gold placer mines.

QUIPILE, prov. of Facatativa, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 46′ N. lat.; over 4,300 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,000. Agricultural centre.

R

RAMIRIQUI, cap. of the prov. of Marquez, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 24′ M. lat.; 7,452 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,800. This is the old priestly centre of the casique of Tunja, and many ruins with curious hieroglyphics still remain. Manufactures of blankets, cloaks, etc. Agricultural and coal-mining centre.

REMEDIOS, dep. of Antioquia, 7° N. lat., 2,348 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,267. Founded in 1560, on account of its extraordinary rich alluvial gold deposits, which are still worked.

RICAURTE, prov. of Girardot, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 16′ N. lat.; 1,093 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,950. Excellent tobacco grown in the neighbourhood; large cigar factory in town. Cattle breeding carried on extensively. Thermal sulphur springs.

Also Ricaurte, prov. of Barbacoas, dep. of Nariño; pop.

3,100.

RIO DE ORO, cap. prov. del Sur, dep. of the Magdalena, 8° N. lat.; over 4,200 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,900. Mining and agricultural centre.

RIOHACHA, cap. prov. of Riohacha, dep. of the Magdalena 11° 33′ N. lat. Was founded in 1545 under the name of "Our Lady of the Snows"; pop. 9,400. Situated at the mouth of the river of the same name on the Goajira Peninsula. Busy trading centre; an important weekly market is held. Chief exports: cattle, horses, divi-divi, rubber, vegetable ivory, gold dust, hides, and timber.

RIONEGRO, dep. of Antioquia, 6° N. lat.; 7,058 ft. above sea-level; pop. 15,231. A pleasant residential town, not far from Medellin.

RIONEGRO, prov. of Bucaramanga, dep. of Santander, 6° 58′ N. lat.; 3,175 ft. above sea-level; pop. 14,300. Important agricultural centre.

RIOSUCIO, cap. of the prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas, 5° 19′ N. lat.; 5,942 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name; pop. 16,500. Gold and silver mining districts. The alluvium of the Rio Sucio are very rich. A busy commercial centre.

Also Riosucio, prov. of Atrato, district of Choco; pop. 950.

ROLDANILLO, cap. of prov. of Roldanillo, dep. of the El Valle; 4° 23′ N. lat.; 3,152 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,200. Agricultural centre.

ROSARIO (EL), prov. of Cúcuta, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 34′ N. lat.; 1,133 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,300. Agricultural centre. Founded in 1734. Birthplace of General Santander; and here the Congress was held which issued the first Constitution of the Gran Colombia.

Also El Rosario, prov. of Juamanbú, dep. of Nariño; pop. 3,900.

S

SABANALARGA, dep. of Antioquia, 6°41′ N. lat.; 1,642 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,400. Important cattle-raising centre.

SABANALARGA, cap. of prov. of that name, dep. of Atlantico, 10° 40′ N. lat.; pop. 16,000. Centre of an important cattle-raising district.

SABOYA, Prov. Occidente, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 31′ N. lat.; 9,194 ft. above sea-level, near the R. Suarez; pop. 11,572. Agricultural centre.

SAHAGUN, prov. of Chinu, dep. of Bolivar, 8° 9′ N. lat.; 406 ft. above sea; pop. 10,100. Cattle-breeding and agricultural centre.

SALAMINA, cap. of the prov. of Salamina, dep. of Caldas, 5° 23′ N. lat.; pop. 18,200. Agricultural and cattle-breeding centre. Salt mines.

Also Salamina, prov. of Santa Marta, dep. of Magdalena; pop. 2,800.

SALAZAR, prov. of Cúcuta, dep. of Norte de Santander, 7° 33′ N. lat.; 2,797 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name. Founded in 1553 for the working of the celebrated San Pedro silver mines. Rich coal seams abound. At present coffee planting is the chief industry. An important fair is held here annually.

SAMACA, prov. del Centro, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 29′ N. lat.; pop. 5,000. Centre of cereal trade. Possesses foundry and textile factories.

SAMANIEGO, prov. of Tuquerres, dep. of Nariño; pop. 9,900. Important gold centre. Several quartz mines are equipped with English and American machinery and capital.

SAMPUES, prov. of Sinceljo, dep. of Bolivar; pop. 6,000. Cattle-breeding and agricultural centre.

SAN AGUSTIN, prov. of Manzanares, dep. of Caldas; pop. 5,900. Agriculture and cattle. Close by here are interesting remains of an old and forgotten civilization.

SAN ANDRÉS, dep. of Antioquia; 6° 18' N. lat.; 2,512 ft. above sea-level, on the R. Guacu; pop. 7,500. Agricultural centres. On the shores of Lake Ortices, close by, choice cotton is grown.

SAN ANDRÉS, cap. of prov. of San Andrés, dep. of Santander, 6° 39′ N. lat; 6,808 ft. above sea-level, on the R. Guaca; pop. 12,700. Agricultural district. Close by is Lake Ortices, on whose banks the best quality of cotton is grown.

SAN ANDRÉS DE SOTAVENTO, prov. of Chinu, dep. of Bolivar; pop. 6,800.

SAN ANTONIO, temporary cap. of the Comisaria of Goajira, 10° 58′ N. lat.; 3,480 ft. above sea-level; pop. 3,375. Trading centre for exchange of goods (horses, cattle, and forest products) with Indians.

Also San Antonio, prov. of San Martin, Meta.

SAN FRANCISCO, prov. of Manizales, dep. of Caldas; pop. 10,200. Agriculture and cattle.

Also San Francisco, prov. of Mompós, dep. of Bolivar; pop. 2,500.

SAN GIL, cap. of prov. of San Gil, dep. of Santander, 6° 20′ N. lat.; 3,628 ft. above sea-level, on the river of the same name; pop. 9,970. Founded in 1689 as Villa de Santa Cruz y San Gil de la Nueva Baeza. Possesses wide streets, with well-built private houses and public edifices; good water supply and electricity; factories for the production of hats, blankets, cotton sheeting, etc. Tobacco is largely grown.

SAN JOSÉ, prov. of Barbacoas, dep. of Nariño, 1° 38' N. lat.; pop. 4,100. Agricultural centre.

SAN JUAN, prov. of El Carmen, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 56′ N. lat.; pop. 13,100. Agricultural centre.

SAN JUAN, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 50′ N. lat.; 4,087 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,900. Agricultural centre, situated on a plateau overlooking the Magdalena.

SAN JUAN DE CESAR, prov. of Riohacha, dep. of Magdalena, 10° 41′ N. lat.; 460 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,900. Centre of tropical agriculture.

SAN LUIS, prov. of Ibagué, dep. of Tolima, 4° N. lat.; 1,682 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,500. Four gold and silver mines.

Also towns of the same name in Antioquia and in prov. of Cúcuta, Norte de Santander.

SAN ONOFRE, prov. of Sincelejo, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 47′ N. lat.; pop. 11,300. Situated in a plain, celebrated for its rice fields.

SANTA ANA, prov. of Banco, dep. of Magdalena, 9° 20′ N. lat.; pop. 5,400. Agricultural centre.

Also towns of same name in prov. of Ricaurte, Boyacá, and prov. of Honda, Tolima.

SANTANDER, cap. of prov. of Santander, dep. of Cauca; pop. 9,900.

SANTA BARBARA, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 49′ N. lat.; pop. 13,000. Agricultural and mining centre. Coffee and tobacco; coal, salt, and limestone.

SANTA MARTA, cap. of the prov. of Santa Marta and dep. of the Magdalena, 11° 15′ N. lat.; pop. 8,350. An excellent harbour on the Atlantic, at the mouth of the Manzanares. Founded in 1525. Possesses cathedral, public library, hospital, many schools, covered market, good water service and electric light. The private houses, almost all of only one storey, are commodious and elegant. A line of small steamers connects Santa Marta with Barranquilla, and a rail-way runs out to Ciénaga and Fundación. Active commercial centre for the central and northern sections of the department, but is chiefly interested in the enormous and fast-developing banana trade.

SANTA ROSA DE CABAL, prov. of Pereira, dep. of Caldas, 4° 35′ N. lat.; 5,576 ft. above sea-level. A centre of the "Panama" straw hat industry.

SANTA ROSA DE OSOS, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 30′ N. lat.; 8,568 ft. above sea-level; pop. 15,800. A centre of alluvial

gold mining.

Also towns of Santa Rosa in prov. of Cartagena, Bolivar, pop. 2,600; prov. of Tundama, Boyacá, pop. 5,400; prov. of Caldas, Cauca, pop. 1,200; and prov. of Guaduas, Tolima, pop. 5,000.

SANTO DOMINGO, dep. of Antioquia, 6° 26′ N. lat.; over 5,800 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,746. Situated on the eastern slope of the Central Cordillera, between Medellin and Puerto Berrio. A commercial, mining, and agricultural centre. Cattle-rearing receives considerable attention.

SANTUARIO, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas, 6° N. lat.; 6,894 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,700. Agriculture and cattle. Town of same name in dep. of Antioquia, pop. 7,600.

SAN VICENTE, prov. of Zapatoca, dep. of Santander, 6° 40′ N. lat.; 1,642 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,400. Agricultural centre.

Towns of the same name in the prov. of Tuluá, El Valle;

prov. of Zapotoca, Santander; and in the district of the Caquetá.

SARAGOZA. See Zaragoza.

SASAIMA, prov. Facatativa, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 53′ N. lat.; over 4,200 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,400. Agricultural centre.

SEGOVIA, prov. of Pereira, dep. of Caldas; pop. 6,900. Agriculture and cattle.

SESQUILE, prov. of Guatavita, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 58′ N. lat.; 8,703 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,850. Large salt mine, owned by the State, now closed down. Big potteries.

SILVIA, cap. of prov. of Silvia, dep. of Cauca, 2° 37′ N. lat.; 8,275 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,000. Agricultural and cattle-breeding centre.

SINCE, prov. of Corozal, dep. of Bolivar; pop. 16,300. Cattle-breeding and agricultural centre.

SINCELEJO, cap. of prov. of Sincelejo, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 26′ N. lat.; 722 ft. above sea-level; pop. 14,000. A picturesque town on a foot-hill of the Sierra Flor, a spur of the western Cordillera. Possesses fine streets and buildings, and is in direct communication for good roadways with Tolu, on the Gulf of Morrosquillo, and Magangué on the Magdalena. A busy cattle-breeding and agricultural centre, well known for the excellent quality of its sugar production.

SOACHA, prov. of Bogotá, dep. of Cundanamarca, 4° 34′ N. lat.; 8,436 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,200. Agricultural centre.

SOATA, cap. of prov. del Norte, dep. of Boyacá, 6° N. lat.; 6,710 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,650. Commercial and agricultural centre. Chief crops: sugar-cane and dates. Curious fosiliferous caves in the neighbourhood.

SOCORRO, cap. of the prov. of Socorro, dep. of Santander, 6° 16' N. lat.; 4,120 ft. above sea-level; pop. 11,200. Founded in 1681; seat of a bishopric. It was here that the

Comuneros insurrection against Spain in the eighteenth century began, and here again, in 1810, that the first step towards independence took place. Possesses factories for the production of straw hats, blankets, fruit preserves, etc. An agricultural centre.

SOCOTA, prov. of Valderama, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 57′ N. lat.; 8,010 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,100. Large tanneries here. Well known for its cheeses, and horse and mule-breeding.

SOGAMOSO, cap. of prov. of Sugumuxi, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 38′ N. lat.; 8,325 ft. above sea-level, on the Moniquira river; pop. 14,647. The ancient Sugumuxi was the head-quarters of the Chibchas priests, and was captured by Quesada in 1537. Busy commercial centre for cereals, cattle hides, etc.

SOLEDAD, prov. of Barranquilla, dep. of Atlantico, 10° 57′ N. lat.; pop. 8,200. Situated on a low-lying, but a damp plain. A centre of cotton weaving.

Town of same name in section three of Comisaria of

Goajiro.

SONSON, dep. of Antioquia, 5° 43′ N. lat.; 8,364 ft. above sea-level; pop. 29,350. Founded in 1785; was the capital of the former dep. of the same name. A flourishing town, the centre of a busy agricultural, industrial and mining district. In the town are factories for the production of carpets, cotton, and woollen fabrics, straw hats, etc. Large herds of cattle are raised on the surrounding fertile fields. There are gold, silver, and salt mines close by.

SOPETRAN, dep. of Antioquia; 6° 22′ N. lat.; 2,476 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,600. Pleasantly situated amidst palm groves. Is a centre of the "Panama" straw hat industry. In the neighbourhood are gold and coal mines; also salt springs.

SOTAQUIRA, prov. Centro, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 44′ N. lat.; about 8,880 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the river of the same name; pop. 8,637. A centre of textile production and agriculture.

SUAITA, prov. of Socorro, dep. of Santander, 5° 58′ N. lat.; 5,679 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,400. Agricultural district, producing maize, cotton, etc.

SUBACHOQUE, prov. of Facatativa, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 52′ N. lat.; 8,821 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,900. Iron, coal, and salt mines. The important iron mines and foundry of La Pradera are in the neighbourhood.

SUPIA, prov. of Riosucio, dep. of Caldas, 5° 23′ N. lat.; over 4,000 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,700. Gold and silver mining district. The gold mines are the property of the State, and are leased to an English Company (the Colombian Mining and Exploration Company), who have installed electric power.

Т

TAMBO, prov. of Popayan, dep. of Cauca, 2° 26' N. lat.; pop. 13,000. Mining and agricultural centre.

TAMBO, prov. of Pasto, dep. of Nariño, 1° 23′ N. lat.; 7,288 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,855. Agricultural and mining.

TAMESIS, dep. of Antioquia; 4,820 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,000. Centre of coffee-growing and cattle-breeding district.

TENA, prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 37′ N. lat.; 4,284 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,200. Ancient pleasure resort of the Chibchas chiefs; reported to be the hiding-place of vast treasures.

TIBANA, prov. of Marquez, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 19′ N. lat.; 8,256 ft. above sea-level, near the R. Jenesano; pop. 8,655. Manufacturing and agricultural centre.

TIMANA, prov. of Garzon, dep. of Huila, 2° 16′ N. lat.; 4,438 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,700. Founded in 1537 on site of an old Indian town. Possesses valuable deposits of emery, amethysts and rock crystal. Considerable factories of "Panama" straw hats, pottery, etc.

TIMBIO, prov. of Popayan, dep. of Cauca, 2° 22′ N. lat.; pop. 12,700. Agricultural and mining centre.

TIMBIQUI, capital of province of Micay, dep. of Cauca, 2° 41′ N. lat.; pop. 11,900. Great gold-mining centre.

TITIRIBI, dep. of Antioquia; 5° 56′ N. lat.; 5,187 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,700. Founded in 1313, in a very mountainous part of the Cordillera Central. A great mining centre, rich gold and silver deposits being worked. Here are also iron and coal mines, with foundry annexed.

TOCAIMA, prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° 26′ N. lat.; 1,416 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,300. Thermal sulphur springs bathing station. Formerly both gold and copper were mined here.

TOLU, prov. of Sincelejo, dep. of Bolivar, 9° 32′, on the Gulf of Morrosquillo; pop. 4,078. Founded in 1535 by Alonso de Heridia. A centre of commerce for balm of Tolu, resins, timber, sugar, lard, etc. This is the town of Tolu Viejo. New Tolu is a little farther south, and has a population of 5,528.

TOTA, prov. of Sugumuxi, dep. of Boyacá, 5° 26′ N. lat.; close to the lake of same name; pop. 5,200. Textile products and cattle breeding.

TULUA, cap. of prov. of Tuluá, dep. of El Valle, 4° N. lat.; 3,319 ft. above sea-level, on river of the same name. The Spanish town was founded in 1794 on the ruins of an old Indian stronghold; pop. 10,800. Extensive cocoa plantations; also cattle farms.

TUMACO, capital prov. of Núñez, dep. of Nariño, 1° 49' N. lat., situated on an island of the same name, close to the Pacific coast; pop. 11,700. Important commercial port. Seat of a Custom house. The town is very picturesque, surrounded by palms and other tropical vegetation.

TUNJA, cap. of the prov. of the Centro, and the dep. of Boyacá, 5° 32′ N. lat.; 9,168 ft. above sea-level; pop. 8,791. This is the ancient Hunza, cap. of the Zaque, or chief of the Muyscas Indians, the Spanish city having been founded in 1539 by Gonzalo Suarez Rondon. It was long one of the chief towns of the colonial days, and possesses besides its cathedral (1540), episcopal palace, Convent of Santa Clara

(1572), many fine old Spanish mansions. Eclipsed for a time, it has regained its commercial place in the community. There are numerous small factories, the Banco Boyacá, Union Comercial, the Compañia de Energia Electrica (which lights the town), the Compañia Nueva del Acueducto (providing a good water supply), open market, where periodical fairs are held, hospital, theatre and other establishments. Its main source of activity is due to agriculture. There are thermal mineral springs in the neighbourhood, and also coal mines.

TUQUERRES, capital of prov. of Túquerres, dep. of Nariño; 1° N lat.; over 10,000 ft. above sea-level, situated in a plain, overlooked by the three great volcanoes: Tuquerres, Cumbal, and Pasto; pop. 15,650. Industrial and agricultural centre.

TURBACO, prov. of Cartagena, dep. of Bolivar, 10° 18′ N. lat.; 711 ft. above sea-level, situated on a hill in close proximity to Cartagena, of which it is a pleasure and health resort; pop. 6,000. Possesses fine mineral water baths.

U

UBALA, prov. of Guavio, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 45′ N. lat.; 6,253 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,400. Copper and iron mines.

UBAQUÉ, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 30′ N. lat.; 5,856 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,300. Popular holiday and health resort for Bogatános. Site of an ancient Indian town, near a sacred lake.

UBATÉ, cap. of prov. of Ubaté, dep. of Cundinamarca, 5° N. lat.; 8,469 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,600. Built on the site of an old Indian town, on the Sabana of Bogotá. Centre of a very active cattle-breeding and agricultural district.

UNE, prov. del Oriente, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 24′ N. lat.; 8,758 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,850. An agricultural centre.

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UNION. See La Union.

URRAS, dep. of Antioquia, 6° N. lat.; 6,326 ft. above sea-level, on the R. Panderisco; pop. 13,000. Centre of cattle-raising and agricultural district. Some rich salt mines.

V

VALLEDUPAR, cap. prov. of Valledupar, dep. of Magdalena, 10° 21′ N. lat.; 436 ft. above sea-level, on the banks of the river Guatapuri, in a fertile plain; pop. 7,300. Agricultural centre. Silver, copper, and lead mines.

VEGA. See La Vega.

VÉLEZ, cap. of the prov. of Vélez, dep. of Santander; 5° 54′ N. lat.; 7,190 ft. above sea-level, built on the slopes of a mountain; pop. 8,600. Agricultural centre.

VERGERA, prov. of Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca; 5° N. lat.; 4,268 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,800. Agricultural and mining district.

VILLAVICENCIO, capital of the Intendencia del Meta; 4° 15 N. lat.; 1,496 ft. above sea-level; pop. 4,800. Situated in a pretty valley, surrounded by forests, in which the wild cocoa-tree grows. Trade mostly in rubber and forest products. Coal seams abundant in this district.

VILLETA, prov. of Facatativá, dep. of Cundinamarca; 4°56′ N. lat.; 2,753 ft. above sea-level; pop. 5,600. Situated in a pleasant, but rather hot valley. Copper and iron mines; sugar-cane plantations. There are well-known thermal baths here.

VIOTA, prov. of Tequendama, dep. of Cundinamarca, 4° 27′ N. lat.; 4,268 ft. above sea-level; pop. 7,200. Agricultural district.

Y

YACOPI, prov. Guaduas, dep. of Cundinamarca; 5° 13′ N. lat.; 5,022 ft. above sea-level; pop. 6,400.

YARUMAL, dep. of Antioquia; 6° 49′ N. lat.; 7,372 ft. above sea-level; pop. 21,250. It is in direct communication

with the ports of Valdivia and Raudal on the Cauca. A commercial, agricultural, cattle-raising and mining centre.

YOLOMBO, dep. of Antioquia; 6° 35′ N. lat.; 4,823 ft. above sea-level; pop. 13,550. Agricultural and mining centre.

Z

ZAPATOCA, cap. of prov. of Zapatoca, dep. of Santander; 6° 35′ N. lat.; 5,652 ft. above sea-level; pop. 10,600. Situated on a plateau surrounded by hills. Chief industry, manufacture of "Panama" straw hats. Cultivation of tobacco and other tropical plants. Lead mines.

ZARAGOZA, dep. of Antioquia; 7° 21′ N. lat.; 674 ft. above sea-level; an important port on the Nechi, an affluent of the Magdalena; pop. 2,452. Founded in 1581. A commercial, and also gold (placer) and coal-mining centre.

ZIPAQUIRA, cap. of the prov. of Zipaquira, dep. of Cundinamarca; 4° 46′ N. lat.; 8,700 ft. above sea-level; pop. 9,917. Picturesque, well-built town, situated on a plateau, at the foot of a huge rock-salt hill. Salt, lead, iron, sulphur, and coal-mining. Busy market for these minerals and also sugar, rice, cotton, tobacco, and textiles. Terminus of the Ferroccaril del Norte.



APPENDIX A

LIST OF STEAMSHIP LINES AND RIVER SERVICES

COLOMBIA is fairly well served by passenger and cargo steamship services.

ATLANTIC PORTS

From English Ports.—Southampton: The Royal Mail Steam Packet Company: fortnightly service passenger and cargo via New York and the West Indies to Puerto Colombia and Cartagena. [This company, in conjunction with the Scrutton Line, has a cargo service from various English and Continental ports to the West Indies, calling at Colombian ports when cargo offers.]

Liverpool: Leyland Line fortnightly passenger and cargo service to Puerto Colombia and Catagena. Harrison Line monthly passenger and cargo service to the same ports. Elders and Fyffes, a weekly service to Santa Marta, outward passengers only. [This line varies its English port of

sailing from time to time.]

From Continental Ports.—The Compagnie Générale Transatlantique have two monthly sailings from French ports for Colon and Puerto Colombia, calling at Cartagena when required.

The Compañia Transatlantica have a monthly sailing from

Barcelona to the West Indies and Colombian ports.

The Hamburg-American Line, sail from Hamburg twice a month, calling at Puerto Colombia and Cartagena via New York.

La Veloce, Navigacione Italiana a Vapore, has a monthly

sailing from Genoa to Puerto Colombia.

From the United States.—Besides the Royal Steam Packet and the Hamburg-American (European service) Lines, which call at New York on the outward and homeward voyages, the latter company's Atlas Service has a weekly sailing from New York to Puerto Colombia, calling at Cartagena on the outward and Santa Marta on the homeward voyages.

The United Fruit Company has a weekly passenger and cargo service from New York to Santa Marta, the ships calling at Jamaica, Colon, Cartagena and Puerto Colombia. It offers special facilities for the pleasure or tourist traffic

PACIFIC PORTS

Buenaventura and Tumaco are visited fortnightly by a coasting service of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company (Royal Mail Steam Packet Company) from the port Panama. The German Kosmos liners also call at these ports, but somewhat irregularly.

RIVER SERVICE

Magdalena.—The "Empresa Aliadas" (an English Company) has a fleet of twenty-nine stern-wheeled steamers (total tonnage, 6,000), which sail up to La Dorada and up the Cauca, from Barranquilla. The "Empresa Hanseatica" has a fleet of seven steamers (total tonnage, 1,269), sailing from both Cartagena and Barranquilla. Both companies run weekly mail services for Bogotá and the intervening ports; and the former has an intermediate service. The other companies are the Compañia Antioqueña de Transportes, two steamers (486 tons). The Compañia de Santa Marta Wharf, with regular service between Barranquilla and Santa Marta (two steamers, 60 tons). The Compañia de Transportes de Soto (three steamers, 120 tons).

Cauca.—The Compañia de Navegación del Rio Cauca,

runs a good service between Cali and Cartago, 124 miles.

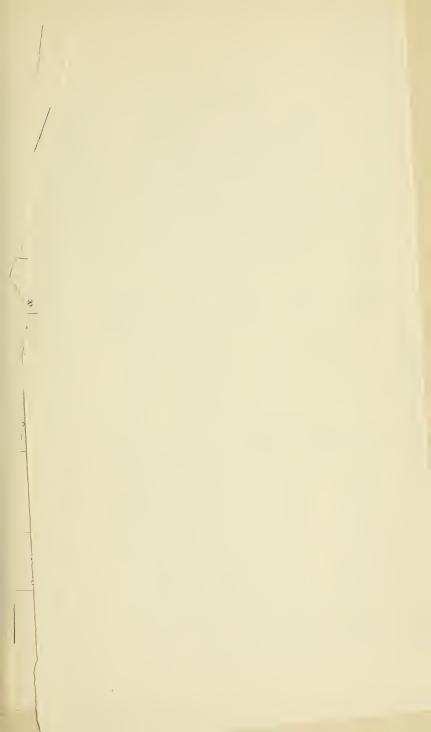
San Juan.—The Anglo-Colombian Development Company runs a regular steam service from Buenaventura to San Pablo, over 350 miles.

Patia.—At Tumaco there are five small steamers which

ply up the Patia and the Telembi to Barbacoas.

Zulia.—There is a good steam service of steamers from Guerto Villamizar, united to Cucuta by rail, to the Venezuelan port of Maracaibo.

Meta.—An irregular steamboat service is kept up between Ciudad Bolivar (Venezuela) and Orocué (fourteen days up stream from Ciudad Bolivar, and seven days homeward).



GENERAL TABLE OF SCIENT AMERICAN CURRENCIES

	Standard	Unit	A 1 S 1 Par Value	of Commerce	A I S V	Remarks
ARGENTINA	Gold	Pescon consilion of pests, or tgod f. dollari = 100 centario	47 619d 1pf.actic = 48d -985 8 (96 5 cents 1	Peso papier (paper dollar)	20 97d (pint fit = 21d) 42 cents	(1 - 3)14 gold peers (the gold peers) is used for otheral purposes only) (1 = 11.35 peer peers) if m/n + moneda nacional*) = one pape dollar.
MOLIVEY	Gold	Pescor (c. 4) dollari	4 of 973 5	Bolivano = 10 reales incitos or 100 centavos)	19 2d 38 9 crisis	(4) = 12.5 bolivianos N.B. Acounts are often reclioned in the old dull of 8 reales or 80 centave inspiral of the true dollar of 100 entrains.
has some	Gold	Milrers gold	26 9.11d 19 for to = 27d; 546 8	Mirrois paper	16d 32.4 cents	(41 = 8.97 milr gold, or 15 milr paper)
HOTHOL LANA	Gold	Sourcign	240/1 4/868}\$	Pollar (* 100 o ma)	5(14)	light const using tourpoint press current but a sourt, or lept in dollars and cons-
CINE	troid	Peso or (gold) doll er)	18d, -365\$	Peso papier	About 115 22 contr	(1) Hip proceed the paper per- fluctuates considerably. The average in 1910 was 10 feb. (The gold price is used for to red pur- poses only.)
C q amid4	tankš	15 s. or Colemorano	48-1 1 100 \$	Peso papier	48d synder 5d 1 1 Lent	el - 5 doi es gold or stat dollar paper. United State inconses further a large acute and on the last week and er principally car culture.
Deri	Gold	10 florin proce	200d	Gulden or florin (100 cents)	2001	$\xi \Gamma = 42$ galdete
Ect yook	Gold	Sucil	24d -4878	Sucré	24d 48 7 cents	gl = 1 constor or 10 lg r - 's paper money
FRENCH	Gold and Silver	20 franc pace 5 franc porce	192d 48d	l rame j = 100 continued	9 63	(1 = 25 frame)
Pasana	Lodd	Billion	49.5d 1-00.8	Salver peso	27-75d. 54 50 cents.	t1 = 4.84 balboas or 9.68 pose paper money United State currency is largely used
PARTIGUAY	Gold	Pess or (gold dollar)	47 619d (practic. = 48d) -9728	Peso papier	3-473d (average in 1910) 7 cents (1910)	The paper dollar fluctuates—average for 1910 was $\ell 1 = 69\cdot10$ pease Quotations are often made in good dollars, at the rate of $\ell 1 = 5$ pease (The gold pease is used for ollicial purposes only)
Pare	Gold	contesimos)	24d -4866]\$	Sof	24d 48 cents	£1 - 10 soles No paper money
RUGUAY	Grdd	Peso nacional (= 100 cen- tesiros)	51d to 53d 1-034\$	Peso	51d to 53d 1-034 8	The peso fluctuates \(\ell I = \text{abour} \) 4.70 dol No paper money.
Venezužla	Gold	Venezolano or Peso fuerte (= 5 boli- vares, or 100 centas os	47 57d. (practic. = 4Nd.) -965\$	Bolivar	9.2d 19.3 cents	£1 = 26 bohvares (The bohva approximately = 1 franc.) N B = Accounts are frequently reckore in peros sensition or managinum of four, instead of ive, bohvare (i.e., 80, not 100, centavos); and in centavos of four, instead of ive centum;
FALKLAND ISLANDS	(British	сыттепсу)				

APPENDIX B

COLOMBIAN CURRENCY

Before 1857 the unit of currency was the Peso Macuquino, a coin of fine silver, equivalent to 8 Reales or "decimos de peso." In 1857 a system based on the French decimal coinage was adopted, and provision was made for the issue of gold, silver, nickel, and bronze coins. Very little, however, was issued, the metallic coins in circulation being practically all those of foreign countries; the real currency was paper, which became greatly depreciated. In 1905 the Central Bank was established, and the redemption of the paper money was entrusted to it; this has more recently been undertaken by the Government. The ratio between the paper and the gold currency was fixed at 10,000 per cent., i.e., 10,000 dollars paper = 100 dollars gold, or in other words 1 dollar paper = 1 centavos.

By the law of 12th June, 1907, the unit of a gold peso or dollar was established, equal to one-fifth of a pound sterling, of the same fineness (916), and of proportionate weight.

The coins authorised are as follows-

Gold.
$$\begin{cases} 5 \text{ dollars} &= 20s. = \$4.87 \\ 2\frac{1}{2}, &= 10s. = 2.43 \\ 1 \text{ dollar} &(100 \\ \text{centavos}) &= 4s. & .97 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} 1 \text{ dollar} &= 4s. \\ \frac{1}{2}, &= 2s. &= 48.6 \text{ cents} \\ \frac{1}{4}, &\text{(peseta)} &= 1s. &= 24.3 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. &= 12.1 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. &= 12.1 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. &= 2.1 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. &= 2.1 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. &= 12.1 \\ \frac{1}{8}, &\text{(real)} &= 6d. \\ \frac{1}$$

The paper dollar notes are the general medium of currency, but in the Atrato Valley and in Cucuta and its neighbourhood silver coins predominate.

APPENDIX C

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

The French metric system is legal in all the countries of South America, and is obligatory in the Customs houses and other government offices. The most important standards are the metre (= 39.37 in.) and the kilogramme (= 2.204 lbs.). In commerce, however, especially in the interior, the older systems often survive. These are confusing as the same term may bear different values in different countries or districts. Thus the old Brazilian system was based on the Portuguese measures, which differed from the Spanish. In old Spain itself the standards were not quite uniform, e.g., the yard (vara) varied between 0.847 and 0.834 of a metre. In the South American colonies this variation tended to increase; thus in Bolivia and Chile the vara = 0.836 m., in Argentina and Paraquay 0.866 m., and in Brazil 1.1110 m.

The more important of these older terms which survive in Colombia, are given below with the English equivalents.

COLOMBIA

The metric system was introduced into Colombia in 1857. Vara (yard) = 80 cm. or 0.8 of a metre = 31.496 in. Cuadra = 100 varas = 87.48 yards, British.

Libra = 1.102 lb. avoird.

Arroba = 25 Col. lbs. or $12\frac{1}{2}$ kilos.,= 27.55 lb. avoird.

Quintal = 100 Col. lbs. or 50 kilos., = 110.20 ,, ,,

APPENDIX D

POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS

The postal, telegraph and telephone services of Colombia are under the charge of the General Administration of Posts and Telegraphs, but while the telegraphic and telephonic branches are a State monopoly, the post office is not. That is to say, although the existing postal organisation is at the charge of the Government the Fiscal Code (Article 517) declares that private persons may freely establish postal

systems throughout the country.

From the first years of the Republic the Government organised a postal service, which had never been introduced under the Colonial regime. The Department is regulated by Law 869, 1888, supplemented by the Organic Decree regarding the Postal and Telegraph Departments of 1892 and Decree 881 of 1911. The Colombian Government joined the Universal Postal Union in 1881, and subscribed to the Postal Convention of Washington, 1897, and the Universal Postal Convention of Rome, 1906. It has also become a subscriber to the Convention on Exchange of Registered and Postal Packets, but has not ratified the Conventions as to (1) exchange of letters and packets with value declared, (2) postal money orders, (3) postal recognition regarding the rate for journals and periodicals from abroad.

Article 43 of the Constitution declares—

"Communications entrusted to the Department of Telegraphs and Posts are inviolable. Letters and private papers cannot be intercepted nor entered on a register except by authority, acting under the order of a competent official, in cases, and under formalities, established by law, and with the sole object of seeking judicial evidence. The circulations of printed matter by means of the post may be controlled, but not prohibited in time of peace."

Coin, jewellery, paper money and documents of public import may not be sent in unregistered letters. If the postal authorities have reason to suppose that a closed letter contains

prohibited articles, they may write thereon the words "Atencion, poste restante," in which case the person to whom it is addressed may be directed to open the packet in the presence of officials, who, however, only satisfy themselves as to the presence or not of such prohibited articles, and in the event of these being found, they have the power to demand double the duty chargeable.

The fees payable on "Valores Declarados" are 3 per cent. on notes and gold, and 2 per cent., plus 4 centimes per 5

grammes on silver.

Senders of franked letters or parcels, desiring that these should be delivered only into the hands of the addressee or a formally authorised person, may ensure this by marking the front of the envelope clearly with the words " Poste Restante." It naturally follows that persons having their letters addressed "Poste Restante" must provide satisfactory evidence of identity.

There are over 500 post offices in the Republic.

TARIFFS

Inland Mails

Ordinary Letters.—2 centavos (gold) for every 15 grammes, or fraction of 15 grammes. So a letter weighing less than 15 grammes pays 2 centavos; one weighing 48 grammes pays 8 centavos.

Post Cards.—1 centavo single; 2 centavos reply.

Printed Matter.—1 centavo per package up to 50 grammes, and a & centavo more for any fraction of this weight. papers not older than six months, free.

Business Papers.—2 centavos up to 100 grammes, and 1 centavo more for every 100 grammes or fraction thereof. Registration Fee.—10 centavos, plus the ordinary postal fee. Urban Service.—Letters posted and to be delivered within

an urban district, ½ centavo per 15 grammes.

Letters marked "Urgente" for special delivery, 4 centavos. Sample Post.—1 centavo for every 100 grammes, or fraction of 100 grammes.

Foreign Mails

Letters.-5 centavos for every 15 grammes, or for every amount exceeding the multiples of 15.

Post Cards.—2 centavo, single 4 centavos, double.

Newspapers.—2 centavos for every 50 grammes or fraction thereof.

Samples.—2 centavos for the first 100 grammes, and above that weight, 1 centavo for every 50 grammes.

TELEGRAPHS

Telegraphs are a State monopoly. Private persons may not establish telegraphs without Government permission.

There are 524 telegraph offices and 11,248 miles of telegraph

lines within the Republic.

There is a branch cable between Panama and Buenaventura. The charge for internal messages are 2 centavos gold per word for the first ten words, and 3 centavos gold for every subsequent word.

TELEPHONES

In Bogotá the telephone service is leased by the Government to an English company, who besides service to houses have a number of public call offices in the city. The charge is 5 centavos per call.

There are telephone services in Barranquilla, Cartagena,

Medellin and other towns.

APPENDIX E

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICES

Colombian Representatives in the United States of America Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plen.: Julio Betancourt. First Sec. of Legation: Roberto Mac Douall.

Also Consular officials at Baltimore, Boston, Mobile, New York, New Orleans, Norfolk, Porto Rico, Philadelphia, St.

Louis, San Francisco, Los Angeles.

United States Representatives in Colombia

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plen.: James T. DuBois, Bogotá. Sec. of Legation: L. Harrison.

Also Consular officials at Barranquilla (Isaac A. Manning), Bogotá, Cartagena, Cali, Medellin, Santa Marta.

Colombian Representatives in the United Kingdom

Minister and Envoy: Pedro María Carreño. Secretary of Legation: Saturnino Restrepo, 25 Avenue Road, London, N.W.

Consul-General and Fiscal Agent in London: Francisco

Restrepo Plata, Sicilian Avenue, W.C.

Also Consular officials at Liverpool, Southampton, Cardiff, Glasgow, Dundee, Birmingham, Nottingham.

British Representatives in Colombia

Envoy Extr., Minister Plen. and Consul-General: Percy

C. Wyndham, Bogotá. Vice-Consul: D. Young.

Also consular officers at Barranquilla, Cartagena, Honda, Medellin, Santa Marta, Buenaventura and Tumaco.

APPENDIX F

DENOUNCEMENT AND ALLOTMENT OF PUBLIC LANDS.

Law No. 56, April 29, 1905, Concerning the Adjudication of Public Lands.

THE National Constituent and Legislative Assembly of Colombia decrees:

Article 1. Every person occupying Government lands, who builds a residence thereon and cultivates said lands, acquires the right of ownership to the cultivated portion thereof and to additional land equal in extent to the cultivated

portion.

Art. 2. Any person who, as a colonist or agriculturist, thinks he has any right of ownership to the cultivated land, either because of having artificial pasturage, coffee plantations, cacao plantations, wheat fields, cornfields, potatoes, etc., should apply to the respective survey and land office, filing a report signed by three witnesses, giving the name by which said lands or parts thereof are known, the province, municipality, township wherein the adjoining lands are situated, and other particulars, giving a clear idea of the same. The depositions shall be made in the presence of the municipal judge in whose jurisdiction the lands are situated, and in the presence of the municipal attorney, who shall be summoned for that purpose, and in the absence of the latter said deposition shall be made in the presence of the proper mayor.

In this statement the witnesses should declare the fact as known to them that the applicant has established his residence and has cultivated lands, stating also the character of the crops. The statement made by the witnesses, together with the petition making the denouncement, shall be addressed to the municipal board of the proper district in whose jurisdiction the denounced lands are situated. On the receipt of said petition the survey of the land by an expert surveyor shall be ordered, and the latter, together with the denouncing party, shall be responsible for the accuracy of the survey.

The surveyor shall fix the boundaries by natural limits or by magnetic directions and exact distances, and shall confine himself to the scientific prescriptions, and upon drawing the plans he shall be guided by established rules. After the survey has been made, and it has been proved that the colonists are such that they have cultivated fields, the municipal board shall decree the provisional adjudication and shall send the proceedings to the Department of Public Works for final adjudication, which shall be granted if there is no legal reason to prevent the same. The formal delivery shall be made in accordance with the provisions now in force relating to public lands and in such way as not to injure the rights of third parties.

- Art. 3. The title of ownership of the adjudication of public lands shall be issued by the Department of Public Works, in a record book duly paged, in which there shall be entered the extent and situation of the adjudicated land and the name, residence, and nationality of the person acquiring it. Said title should be recorded in the registration office of the circuit where the said lands are located.
- Art. 4. The procedure for the adjudication, delivery, and registration of public lands by the sale thereof shall be made in the same manner as that employed in the case of colonists and agriculturists, and the witnesses shall declare that the lands are not for any public use, that they are public lands, and are situated at a distance exceeding 1 myriameter from existing railways or those in construction, which statement shall, in addition, be verified at the Department of Public Works.

Art. 5. In order to verify at any time the accuracy of the adjudicated lands by concessions made to companies or by sales to private persons, the longitude and latitude shall be determined in the proper plans with reference to the meridian which passes through the Astronomical Observatory at Bogotái

Art. 6. In drawing all plans of public lands, whether by sale or adjudication, the surveyor shall only estimate in areas whole numbers of hectares on the scale of one-thousandth or on a smaller one.

Art. 7. Public lands which have not been cultivated since the promulgation of Law No. 48 of 1882 shall again become ipso facto the property of the nation, and after it is proved that they are not cultivated they may be denounced. Likewise, in future, one-half at least of the extent of all public lands adjudicated to colonists, companies, or agriculturists shall be cultivated, since without such requisite the right of the person to whom they have been adjudicated shall expire within the term fixed in the title of said adjudication.

- Art. 8. Agriculturists or colonists may freely sell the plantations, buildings, and seed plots established on public lands, the buyer thus acquiring the right of ownership of the seller over the cultivated lands.
- Art. 9. The title of ownership of adjudicated public lands is the certificate issued by the Minister of Public Works stating the final adjudication, and which is also recorded in the registry office to which the respective municipality in which the lands are situated belongs.
- Art. 10. The possession of public lands is the holding of the same by an individual with the intention of becoming owner thereof, either for himself or in representation of third parties, by virtue of acts of ownership, such as forming seed plots, constructing buildings, and the cultivation of the land in general.

Art. 11. No adjudication of public lands shall exceed 1,000 hectares, the Nation reserving to itself alternate areas

equivalent to those adjudicated.

Art. 12. The survey and other expenses incidental to all adjudications shall be for account of the respective

concessionaires and grantees.

Art. 13. All adjudications of public lands now in force by any title whatever and whose lands have not been cultivated shall pay a tax equal to that which obtains on rural lands, and the municipal boards of the respective districts in which the said public lands are situated are authorized to collect said tax, irrespective of the provisions of Article 7 concerning public lands adjudicated subsequent to the promulgation of Law 48 of 1882.

Art. 14. Colonists or agriculturists desiring to obtain adjacent lands in adjudication may do so by purchase, in accordance with the provisions of the present law.

Art. 15. On and after the date of the passage of

the present law the issue of territorial bonds is absolutely

prohibited.

Art. 16. The titles or bonds of public lands, in circulation, must be recorded in the Department of Public Works within the term of one year from the promulgation of this law. In order to render it easier for the holders to make this registration, it shall be sufficient for them to exhibit their bonds to the Municipal Treasurer of the respective district in which they reside, and said official shall forward a statement to the aforesaid department containing the following:

(1) The name, domicile, and nationality of the holder.

(2) The kind of bond, stating the date of issuance and its origin.

(3) The amount of the bond.

Foreign holders of territorial bonds shall show their bonds to the respective consul, and the latter to said department.

Art. 17. The final titles of adjudication of public lands made either in exchange for titles or to agriculturists or colonists must be recorded or registered immediately at the Department of Public Works in order that they may be legally valid afterwards. This registration must be made within two years from the date of the promulgation of this law.

In order to avoid difficulties in making this registration the same shall be made before the municipal treasurers of the respective districts where the adjudicated lands are situated.

Art. 18. The municipalities shall enjoy the right of usufruct of the public lands of their respective jurisdiction, with the previous consent of the National Government, but this shall not prevent their alienation and adjudication, which, having been made, the right of usufruct shall cease.

Art. 19. The ownership of all public lands is in the Nation, because of having recovered the absolute ownership over those which belonged to the former States, in accordance with the provisions of Section 2, Article 202, of the National

Constitution.

Art. 20. The titles of concession of public lands issued in favour of said former States are hereby declared void, in accordance with the law of the 19th of May, 1865, and Article 870 of the Fiscal Code with the exception of those which were alienated before the issuance of the Constitution of 1886.

Art. 21. The adjudications of public lands in exchange for titles already delivered in favour of companies or contractors of certain public works, as a subsidy to the latter, shall not be considered as final except in so far as the Government shall declare that the contractors or concessionaires have complied with the obligations by virtue of which the concession had been made.

Art. 22. The Department of Public Works shall make a statement of said adjudications, which shall be published

in the Diario Oficial.

Art. 23. In future no adjudications shall be made in exchange of titles of the origin referred to in Article 21 unless they have been duly recorded.

Art. 24. The free exploitation of National Forests is hereby prohibited. The Executive Power is authorized to make rules and regulations for the carrying out of such exploitation.

Art. 25. The Government is hereby authorized to create agricultural boards or committees, the powers of which

shall be determined by Executive decrees.

Art. 26. All bonds paid shall be perforated, and in addition shall be made void by a communication signed by the Secretary of the Department of Public Works. The omission of these requisites renders the chief of the respective division responsible for the value represented by the bond and subjects him to a criminal action for an attempt of a breach of trust.

Art. 27. Lands adjudicated to colonists and which have not been cultivated owing to the last war will not be subject

to the provisions of Articles 7 and 13 of this law.

Given at Bogotá on the 29th of April, 1905.

The President (of the National Constituent and Legislative Assembly),

ENRIQUE RESTREPO GARCÍA.

The Secretary,

Daniel Rubio Paris.

Executive Power, Bogotá, April 29, 1095. Let it be published and duly enforced.

[L.S.] R. REYES.

The Secretary of Public Works,

Modesto Garcés

Decree No. 1113 of September 19, 1905, Relating to Law 56 of the present year, Concerning Adjudications of Public Lands.

The President of the Republic of Colombia, in the exercise

of his legal powers, and

Whereas, by virtue of Law No. 56 of the current year some of the provisions of the Fiscal Code, of the subsequent laws, and of the executive decrees relating to the adjudication, sale, and lease of public lands have been modified, and, consequently the development of the former and the modification and regulation of the latter, decrees:

Art. 1. The Nation transfers the ownership of public lands as follows: By adjudication to agriculturists; by assignment to companies for the development of works of public utility: to new settlements and to the settlers of those already established, in exchange for bonds or titles of concession, and to private parties by purchase for money.

Art. 2. The Nation recognises in favour of agriculturists

Art. 2. The Nation recognises in favour of agriculturists the right of ownership referred to in Article 1 of Law No. 56 of the present year, said agriculturists being obliged, however, to obtain the traditional legal title by virtue of the final adjudication and the actual delivery decreed after the proper proceedings.

Art. 3. Plantations, by virtue of which the right to the acknowledgment of ownership by the Government is acquired, must have been established previous to the application for adjudication, in accordance with the provisions of the laws

and decrees concerning the matter.

Paragraph. The plantations established subsequent to the adjudications for any other reason, when the lands again become the property of the Nation, entitle the persons who have established them only to an indemnization in conformity with the civil laws relating to the interpretation and rescission of contracts.

Art. 4. When, contiguous to cultivated public lands, there are no uncultivated lands of sufficient area to complete the equivalent to which the agriculturists are entitled to, only the existing lands shall be adjudicated, and in case there are several adjacent colonists, said uncultivated lands shall be

distributed in proportion to the extent of their cultivated lands without reserving any portions thereof for the Nation.

Art. 5. If the uncultivated lands which, in accordance with Article 11 of Law 56 already quoted, should be reserved for the Nation adjacent to those adjudicated to the agriculturists are not sufficient to complete an area equivalent to that adjudicated, only the excess shall be reserved to the Nation.

Art. 6. The grantees and the present owners or holders of any title of public lands must grant in favour of the new colonists or denouncers the right of way they may seek through such lands, provided the interested parties should justify or prove such need before the municipal board.

Art. 7. The municipal boards shall cause to be recorded in the registry of real property of the respective district the public lands which have not been cultivated, the adjudications of which are previous or subsequent to the time when Law 48 of 1882 became effective; shall cause said lands to be appraised, and shall impose on them the proper tax; this to be done in accordance with Article 13 of Law 56 of 1905.

Art. 8. Whenever the municipal board has knowledge that there are, within its municipal territory, uncultivated public lands which have been adjudicated after Law 48 of 1882 became operative, it shall cause an ocular inspection to be made, and when such fact is verified the board shall communicate it to the Department of Public Works.

Art. 9. The provisions of Article 7 of Law 56 already cited and the provisions of the preceding article are applicable to public lands which have been adjudicated after the passage of the aforesaid Law 48, should the cultivated portion not bear the proportion prescribed in Article 12 of the Decree No. 832 of 1884.

Art. 10. By virtue of the right of usufruct, enjoyed by the municipalities in accordance with the law of the public lands not yet adjudicated, the respective municipalities may administer them by leasing them or permitting private parties to use them, but of an area not exceeding 1,000 hectares nor for a period of time greater than five years.

Art. 11. From the date on which this decree becomes operative, all the licences and authorizations gratuitously conferred by the authorities for the use of public lands that

have not been adjudicated shall be void. Consequently, the municipalities shall recover the lands referred to in this Article.

Art. 12. In the ten years prescribed by Article 7 of Law 48 of 1882 for establishing in the adjudicated lands some agricultural or cattle industry, the time of the disturbance of the

public peace during the last war shall not be counted.

Art. 13. Persons to whom public lands have been adjudicated after Law 29 of April 19, 1873, became operative, where there have already been discovered coal mines or deposits, shall communicate this fact to the Department of Public Works within six months counting from the publication of this decree, with the understanding that if they fail to comply with this requisite they shall not have the right of priority in the contracts for the exploitation of said mines or deposits as the Government should make.

Art. 14. The prohibition contained in Article 11 of Law 56 of 1905, as a special and subsequent provision, prevails

over all contrary provisions.

PROCEDURE

Art. 15. In the sworn statements of witnesses in which the facts referred to in Articles 2 and 4 of Law 56, to which this decree refers, are proved, the witnesses shall state the reason of their allegations, in the presence of the municipal attorney.

Art. 16. The respective municipal solicitors shall give their opinion in all cases, in which the municipal councils shall present a resolution in the proceedings relating to the

adjudication of public lands.

Art. 17. The denouncer of public lands shall be jointly liable with the surveyor with regard to the accuracy of the survey and other requisites required by the laws and the decrees in force concerning the making of the plans, said responsibility consisting of the obligation to pay to the nation the value of the excess land or the damages caused by the mistake, as well as the expenses incurred in the correction of the same.

Paragraph. This provision does not divest the denouncer of the rights granted him to the excess land by Article 940

of the Fiscal Code.

Art. 18. The surveyor shall mark in the plan, and it shall also be stated in the certificate of adjudication, the place through which the necessary road leading to the adjacent lands shall be established, whether the latter are private or public lands, and which lack direct communication with public highways, taking into consideration above all the greatest convenience and the shortest distance.

Art. 19. All kinds of adjudications, whether they be greater or less than 100 hectares, require, in order to be granted, the drawing of the plan in accordance with the provisions of the

law in force.

Art. 20. The oppositions made to the applications for adjudication by occupants of public lands without final title shall be decided by the respective municipal council simultaneously with the issuance of the decision by virtue of which they are provisionally adjudicated. The application made by persons who show titles to property granted before the denouncement shall be decided upon by the judicial power, to whom shall be sent the proceedings and to whom the interested parties shall apply.

Art. 21. The evidence which the denouncers shall produce, according to the provision of Article 7 of Law 56 of the present year, relating to the failure to cultivate the public lands adjudicated after Law 48 of 1882, shall consist of the actual personal inspection by the mayor, accompanied by the municipal attorney and a neighbour, who shall be a landowner in

good standing, at the expense of the interested party.

Art. 22. The denouncers of public lands, in exchange for territorial bonds or titles of the origin referred to in Article 21 of Law 56, and of those lands which for any reason have not been registered in accordance with said law in the Department of Public Works, and whose applications are being acted upon, may exchange the same for others of different origin already registered, before any decision is reached concerning the final adjudication.

Art. 23. The certificate which constitutes the title of ownership, referred to in Article 9 of Law 56 of the current year, shall be issued by the Department of Public Works as soon as the latter receives the proceedings from the respective municipality, together with all the documents relating

to the ownership to be finally filed.

Art. 24. From the decisions reached by the municipal councils, in the proceedings concerning the adjudication of public lands, there shall be no appeal except from those regarding temporary adjudications, of which the Department of Public Works shall have cognizance.

Paragraph. In the administrative proceedings relating to adjudication of public lands, applications for repeal shall

only be allowed once.

Art. 25. The decisions of the officials referred to in Article 5 of Law 61 of 1874 may be brought on appeal before the

respective provincial alcalde or prefect.

Art. 26. When the denounced public lands are situated in two or more municipalities the interested party may apply for the adjudication of the same to any of the municipal

councils they may select.

- Art. 27. The notifications of the administrative decisions in matters concerning public lands shall be personally made to the interested party or parties whenever they apply to receive the same, or through a decree in case they should not so apply, which dercee shall be posted twenty-four working hours on the day following the one on which said notifications have been issued.
- Art. 28. After a period of five days shall have elapsed from the date of the notification the same shall be considered finally settled.

Adjudications by Purchase

Art. 29. The purchase of public lands referred to in Article 4 of the aforesaid Law 56 shall be made either in exchange for titles of concession already issued or by purchase in national

money.

Art. 30. In denouncing public lands for the purpose of obtaining them by purchase, the denouncer shall state in his application the amount he offers to pay for them, which shall not be less than 50 cents gold per hectare for lands suitable only for grazing stock, and \$1 gold for cultivated lands, and shall deposit 10 per cent. of the total price as a guarantee of the fulfilment of his pledge.

Art. 31. Once the denouncement has been accepted by the Municipal Council, the latter shall direct that the same be made known by means of decrees, which shall not be less

than three in number, and which shall be posted in the most public places of the municipality, stating therein the boundaries of the land and the price offered, in order that, during said term, those desirous of making better bids may do so.

Art. 32. After thirty days shall have elapsed without anyone having made a better bid, and the decrees having been added to the proceedings with the respective notice of having been posted and taken down, the procedure shall

go on without further requisite.

Art. 33. If while the said decrees are posted there should appear persons who offer to increase the price of the first bid, and the denouncer should agree to make his bid equal to the highest made, the proceedings shall be continued in favour of the latter bidder.

Art. 34. If the denouncer should not desire to make his bid equal to the one already made, and the highest bidder should deposit in the municipal treasury 10 per cent. of the bid made, the proceedings in favour of the latter shall be continued, adding to the said proceedings the receipt of the deposit.

Art. 35. Before reaching a decision concerning the final adjudication in favour of the purchaser, the latter shall show the receipt of having deposited in the National Treasury the sum offered as value of the lands which shall be adjudicated

to him.

Sales of more than 1,000 hectares

Art. 36. Public lands exceeding 1,000 hectares in area may be sold by the Government, provided the bids for their acquisition are made directly to the Department of Public Works, accompanied by the vouchers required for the adjudication of public lands in accordance with Law 56 of the present year, stating the sum offered for the same.

Art. 37. The application, made in accordance with the foregoing article, shall serve as a basis for making the bids, and shall be made in accordance with the rules established by the Fiscal Code concerning the sale of Government

property.

Adjudications for the Establishing of New Towns, and made to New Settlers

Art. 38. The adjudication of public lands intended for the

establishment of new towns and to new settlers shall be made after the National Government has made the grant of the land necessary to the respective municipalities, in conformity with the following articles:

Art. 39. The grant shall be applied for the respective municipal councils, stating the number of hectares required for the establishment of a new town, or for the new settlers, with proofs as to the quality of the public lands in question.

Art. 40. In view of the application and of the proofs attached thereto the National Government shall decide whether the grants of public lands for the purpose indicated shall be made or not.

Art. 41. After the grant has been made, the respective municipal councils shall proceed to make the distribution and adjudication to the settlers, using for that purpose the provisions of Law 14 of 1870 and those of Decree No. 520 of 1878 with regard to the duties of the surveyor and of the agrarian committees.

Art. 42. It is understood that the provisions of the foregoing articles shall not impair the rights which settlers already established on said lands have to solicit said adjudications.

Art. 43. Public lands containing heron roosts or sleeping places for herons shall not in future be adjudicated, being held to be leased to private parties who may so desire to lease them.

REGISTRATION AND ANNULMENT OF TITLES

Art. 48. The municipal treasurer, to whom the bonds or titles of final adjudication are presented for registration, shall write a note thereon, under his signature, stating therein the number and date of the entry of the book wherein the registration was made in the Department of Public Works, as soon as he receives the data which should be sent him from said Department, together with the proper voucher that the said registration has been made, holding the titles while this is being done.

Art. 49. The municipal treasurers shall forward to the Department of Public Works the statements of the bonds or titles of grants and the titles of adjudication presented to them for registration, in accordance with the provisions of Articles 16 and 17 of the aforesaid Law 56, and shall leave a copy of said statement in a book which shall be kept

for this purpose.

Art. 50. The provisions of the articles above quoted do not prevent the holders of bonds or titles of adjudication from presenting them directly to the Department of Public Works in order that they may be registered in that Department.

Art. 51. The Department of Public Works shall, for the purpose of registering the titles or bonds of grants of public lands in the order of dates, series, and origin, retain them the time necessary to verify the greater number of one kind, with the details relating thereto, and record them in one single proceeding, issuing a provisional receipt to the parties presenting them.

Art. 52. The inscription in the registration book shall be made in an inverted order to that of the respective date of the

issue of the bonds or titles of grants.

Art. 53. If, on making the registration in the Department of Public Works of the bonds or titles of grant or adjudication presented for that purpose, it should be found that they belong to the kind referred to in Article 21 of Law 56, before cited, the registration shall not be made until it shall be proved by the interested parties or until official proof is furnished that the contractors or grantees have complied with the obligations by virtue of which the title was issued in their favour or the adjudication was made to them.

Art. 54. No title or voucher of adjudication of public lands issued after Law 48 of 1882 became effective, and which has been issued for a period greater than ten years, shall be registered in the Department of Public Works until the interested party proves that the adjudicated land has been cultivated to the extent prescribed by Article 12 of Decree No.

832 of 1884.

Art. 55. The titles or bonds of concession of public lands which, at the time of registration in the Department of Public Works, should prove to be counterfeit or to have been taken from proceedings already concluded shall be perforated and annulled, the owner thereof reserving to himself the right to proceed against the person who may have sold or indorsed them.

Art. 56. The titles or bonds of concession of public lands which, notwithstanding that they have been registered, are

counterfeit or have been stolen, shall be declared void by the Department of Public Works and a description of them shall

be published in the Diario Oficial (Official Gazette).

Art. 57. The titles or bonds of grants of public lands which after the term fixed by Article 16 of the said Law 56 shall have expired have not been registered in the Department of Public Works are declared void, and shall not therefore have any value whatever thereafter.

Art. 58. The bonds or titles of grants of public lands which are the property of private persons deposited for any person in the Department of Public Works shall be registered after being duly examined and verified for the purpose of proving

their authenticity.

Paragraph. In case it should appear that said bonds or titles are counterfeited or stolen the proper officials shall proceed to void and perforate the same, the receipt issued for

them being thereby cancelled and annulled.

Art. 59. If a deposit has been made to guarantee the fulfilment of the obligations contracted in favour of the nation by virtue of contracts entered into with the Government, and it should appear that the titles or bonds of the grant are counterfeited or stolen, after the annulment of the same, a new guarantee shall be required of the person contracting the obligation.

Art. 60. For the annulment and perforation of the titles which shall be carried out in conformity with the foregoing articles, the proceedings prescribed in Article 26 of Law 56

of the current year shall be followed.

Art. 61. Decree No. 832 of 1884, and circular No. 94 of the 15th October, 1884, are hereby amended, in so far as they conflict with the present decree, as well as all other similarly conflicting provisions.

Given in Fusagasugá, on the 19th September, 1905.

Let it be published and enforced.

R. REYES.

The Secretary of Public Works,

Modesto Garcés.

WORK AND WAGES

Although the population of Colombia is undoubtedly very scanty in proportion to the area of the country, there are certain portions of the interior of the Republic where the number of inhabitants per square kilometre is almost comparable to that of Belgium or Holland. There are therefore regions practically uninhabited and uncultivated, and other regions in which the population sometimes surpasses the productive powers of the soil. Hence, where the population is numerous, employers find all the hands they require and wages are low. This is the case in the temperate and healthy districts, such as the famous Valley of Tensa, the Valley of Pereira, and in high and fertile districts, like the Plain of Bogotá, and in the Valley of the Rio Negro in Antioquia. In these districts the wages of the ordinary workman do not exceed 35 to 40 centavos (gold). In the departments of Boyacá and Cundinamarca, with their great haciendas, with their system of co-operative subtenancies (somewhat on the metayer system), the workman receives a wage apparently smaller, because the balance is given in the form of his board and reduced rent for his holding. Elsewhere the workman contracts to work for the proprietor of the estate on certain days in the year at a low wage, in consideration of the part of the estate which he occupies and exploits on his own account.

In tropical and therefore less populous districts, where the agricultural and pastoral industries require more labour, the unskilled workman receives higher pay, especially if this district is unhealthy. Here the rate rises to 50 or 60 centavos. In the Antioquia mines the rates are still higher, the minimum being 1 peso (gold) per day. Wages are smaller in remote country districts than in the neighbourhood of the large towns, and smaller in the neighbourhood of the towns than in the towns themselves. An unskilled workman earns in Bogotá 60-70 centavos for labour which in the country is worth less. On the railways the navvy earns 70-80 centavos in tropical,

and 50-60 centavos in colder districts.

Generally speaking the supply of labour exceeds the demand in Colombia. Within the same territory there are migrations from district to district in search of work. There is from Antioquia a constant stream of emigration to Cauca, Tolima, and Cundinamarca. Through Valley of Tensa in Boyacá, large bodies regularly emigrate to populate less favoured

districts.

This excess of supply over demand, coupled with the fact of large tracts of uncultivated land, accounts for the lack of European emigration to Colombia. The European peasant is on the whole better paid than the Colombian; but, on the other hand, his standard of living is higher. As a result, European emigration will not spontaneously flow towards Colombia; the European workman cannot compete in point

of wages with the Colombian.

Therefore to promote emigration to Colombia, the Government must pass special laws to counterbalance or abolish the present conditions. Failing this, private enterprise with the object of increasing the value of the land, will at no very remote period, deal with the diversion towards Colombia of European emigration. This will be a harder task than may appear, since the European workman has of late years shown less disposition to emigrate to N. and S. America than was formerly the case.

APPENDIX G

CONVENTIONS AND TREATIES

Between United States of America and Colombia

AMITY, Commerce and Navigation.—Made with New Granada in 1846; revised by Colombia and the United States in 1909. One of the articles of this Convention provides for the neutrality of the Isthmus of Panama.

Consular Convention, 4 May, 1850.

Extradition, 7 May, 1888; Amended 1889, 1890; Proclaimed 6 Feb., 1891.

Postal and Telegraph Convention, 18 Jan., 1889.

Panama Ship Canal, 22 Jan., 1903, and 9 Jan., 1909. treaty provided for: The renunciation by Colombia of rights and contracts relating to construction; Grant of use of ports to U.S.; Assignment by Republic of Panama to Colombia of the right to receive payment from the United States; Freedom of passage for Colombian mails; Colombian products to enter Canal Zone at same duty as those of the United States; Payment of tenth annual instalments to Colombia of \$250,000 as from 1908.

The 1909 Treaty (between the United States, Colombia and Panama) did not become operative owing to the refusal of

Colombia to accept some of the conditions.

Between Colombia and the United Kingdom

Amity, Commerce and Navigation, 16 Feb., 1866. treaty contains clauses dealing with the Consular service.

Law, Foreigners and Nationalization, 15 Nov., 1888.

Postal and Telegraph Convention, 1881, 1885, 1891 and 15 June, 1897.

Parcel Post, 1887, and 15 Sept., 1899.

Extradition, 27 Oct., 1888.

Convention on Industrial Property.

Arbitration, 30 Dec., 1908.



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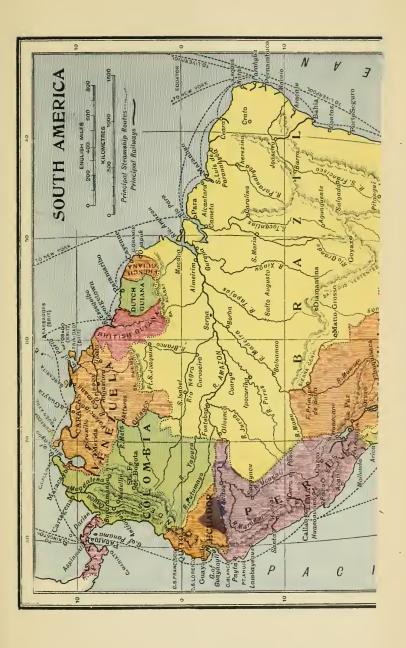
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